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THE

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EDITED BY

HENRY BARNARD, LL.D.

VOLUME XV.


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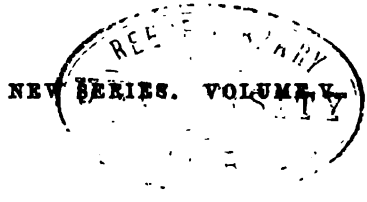
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I. THE STATE AND EDUCATION.

AN ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE OF NEW JERSEY IN 1838.*

FELLOW CITIZENS:—We were appointed by the Convention of your own delegates to address you on the subject of Common Schools. We approach you with solicitude, as deeply sensible of the great importance of the interest intrusted to us; yet, as freemen speaking to freemen, with prevailing confidence.

The points which we propose for your attention, and, if we might, would press into every heart, are few, simple and practical; the necessary consequences, it seems to us, from principles which all admit. We say that *knowledge is the universal right of man:* and we need bring no clearer demonstration than that intellectual nature, capable of it, thirsting for it, expanding and aspiring with it, which is God's own argument in every living soul. We say that the assertion for himself of this inherent right, to the full measure of his abilities and opportunities, is *the universal duty of man:* and that whoever fails of it, thwarts the design of his Creator; and, in proportion as he neglects the gift of God, dwarfs and enslaves and brutifies the high capacity for truth and liberty which he inherits. And all experience, and every page of history confirm the assertion, in the close kindred, which has everywhere been proved, of ignorance and vice with wretchedness and slavery. And we say farther, that the security of this inherent right to every individual, and its extension, in the fullest measure, to the greatest number, is *the universal interest of man;* so that they who deny or abridge it to their fellows, or who encourage, or, from want of proper influence, permit them to neglect it, are undermining the foundations of government, weakening the hold of society, and preparing the way for that unsettling and dissolving of all human institutions, which must result in anarchy and ruin, and in which they who have the greatest stake must be the greatest sufferers. A lesson, clearly taught by

* The Convention assembled in Trenton on the 27th and 28th of January, 1838, Chief Justice Hornblower presiding. The address was prepared by the Rt. Rev. George W. Doane, in behalf of a Committee consisting of Bishop Doane, *Chairman*, L. Q. C. Elmer, M. J Rhees, T. Frelinghuysen, J. S. Green, D. B. Ryall, A. B. Dod, A. Atwood, and S. R. Gummere.

that divine philosophy, in which the Maker of mankind becomes their Teacher; reveals the world as but one neighborhood, and men as brethren of one family; and writes upon all social institutions these golden truths, the fundamentals and essentials of the true political economy, which neither individuals nor nations have ever disregarded with impunity,—"all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them"—"none of us liveth to himself"—"whether one member suffer, all the members suffer with it; or one member be honored, all the members rejoice with it"—"bear ye one another's burdens, and so fulfill the law of Christ."

If the truth of these positions be established, their application is self-evident. And there never was a nation, since the world was made, in which their obligation was so clear, or its application so important. In the theory of our constitution, the people are the governors. In practice, they ought to be. And is ignorance the qualification for good government? Would you select a man to make your laws who can not read? Or one who can not write to execute them? Yet the authority which they exercise, and the abuses of which they are capable, are nothing, in comparison with theirs, from whom all power proceeds, and without whose permission no wrong can be done. Fellow citizens, we are republicans. Our country is our *common wealth*. We have all an equal share in her. Her laws are alike for the protection of all. Her institutions are alike for the advantage of all. Her blessings are our common privilege. Her glory is our common pride. But common privileges impose a common responsibility. And equal rights can never be disjoined from equal duties. The constitution which, under God, secures our liberties, is in the keeping of us all. It is a sacred trust which no man can delegate. He holds it for himself, not only, but for his children, for posterity, and for the world. And he who can not read it, who does not understand its provisions, who could not on a just occasion, assert its principles, no more sustains the character of an American citizen, than the man who would not seal it with his blood.

It is in vain to say that education is a private matter, and that it is the duty of every parent to provide for the instruction of his own children. In theory, it is so. But there are some who can not, and there are more who will not, make provision. And the question then is, shall the State suffer from individual inability, or from individual neglect? When the child who has not been trained up in the way in which he ought to go, commits a crime against the State,

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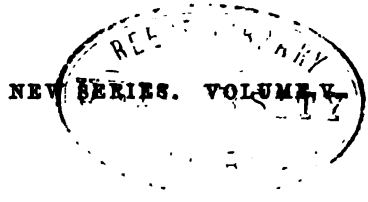
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clare the wishes of the people for a more effective system of instruction. The plan and its provisions they left with perfect confidence to the wisdom of the Legislature. The course which the convention pursued is even more becoming for us. The rather, as the matter is at this very moment in the course of legislative action. And after all, fellow citizens, the question, "What the law is?" is by no means so important as the question, "What is public sentiment?" If the people are but right the Legislature never will be greatly wrong. Or if they should, the remedy is easy, and the cure infallible.

Omitting all considerations, then, of what has been or of what may be legislative enactments on the subject, we address you as the Sovereign People, and we say that "*it is your duty and your highest interest to provide and to maintain, within the reach of every child, the means of such an education as will qualify him to discharge the duties of a citizen of the Republic;* and will enable him, by subsequent exertion, in the free exercise of the unconquerable will, to attain the highest eminence in knowledge and in power which God may place within his reach. We utterly repudiate as unworthy, not of freemen only, but of men, the narrow notion that there is to be an education for the poor, as such. Has God provided for the poor a coarser earth, a thinner air, a paler sky? Does not the glorious sun pour down his golden flood as cheerily upon the poor man's hovel as upon the rich man's palace? Have not the cotter's children as keen a sense of all the freshness, verdure, fragrance, melody, and beauty of luxuriant nature as the pale sons of kings? Or is it on the mind that God has stamped the imprint of a baser birth so that the poor man's child knows with an inborn certainty that his lot is to crawl, not climb? It is not so. God has not done it. Man can not do it. Mind is immortal. Mind is imperial. It bears no mark of high or low, of rich or poor. It heeds no bound of time or place, of rank or circumstance. It asks but freedom. It requires but light. It is heaven-born, and it aspires to heaven. Weakness does not enfeeble it. Poverty can not repress it. Difficulties do but stimulate its vigor. And the poor tallow chandler's son that sits up all the night to read the book which an apprentice lends him lest the master's eye should miss it in the morning, shall stand and treat with kings, shall add new provinces to the domain of science, shall bind the lightning with a hempen cord and bring it harmless from the skies.* The Common School is *common*, not as inferior, not as the school for poor men's children, but as the

* See Franklin's Life.

light and air are common. It ought to be the best school because it is the first school; and in all good works the beginning is one-half. Who does not know the value to a community of a plentiful supply of the pure element of water? And infinitely more than this is the instruction of the common School; for it is the fountain at which the mind drinks, and is refreshed and strengthened for its career of usefulness and glory.

Fellow citizens, it is the wise ordinance of God that man shall work for what he values. In all the dealings of your ordinary life, you act upon the principle. You plow your fields. You urge your spindles. You ply your fisheries. You tend your shops. With sweat of brow, or sweat of brain, each precious thing that man possesses must be gained and kept. At no less price can liberty and its attendant blessings be enjoyed. "That which makes a good constitution," said wise and prudent William Penn,* "must also keep it, men of wisdom and virtue: qualities which, because they descend not with inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth." Ask not, then, when we enjoin on you the duty of providing for the public instruction, where the cost shall come from? Were your house beset with robbers would you stop to ask the cost of its defense? If an invading army were to land to-morrow on our shores must we stop to count the cost before we march to meet and to repel them? The Common Schools are in the place to us of arms, and troops, and fleets. They are our nurseries of men. They are indeed "the cheap defense of nations."

What constitutes a State?
Not high-raised battlements or labored mound,
Thick wall, or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned,
Not bays and broad-armed ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride,
No—MEN, high-minded MEN.
* * * * *
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain;
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant, while they rend the chain:
These constitute a State.†

Fellow citizens, it is for you to say what shall be the present character, what shall be the future destiny of New Jersey. We

* Preface to the Frame of Government, 1682. † Sir William Jones, in imitation of Alcæus.

have indeed a goodly heritage. But it has been long and shamefully neglected. We have undervalued our privileges. We have overlooked our duties. We have been content to be a pendent merely, when we ought to be an independent State. There is now, thank God, the sound as of a trumpet in the land that stirs the old heroic blood. We feel the remnant sparks of the forgotten fire which warmed our fathers' hearts. The spirit of the elder day is breathing on us with its quickening and invigorating power. Let us accept the omen. Let us obey the noble impulse. Let us arise to duty and to glory. Men of New Jersey, it is you that are to rise. You are the State. You create and you control the Legislature. You enact and you sustain the laws. Yours are the means. Yours is the influence. Yours is the work. You make, *you are the State.* Go on as you have now begun. The system of Common Schools which shall be adopted by the present legislature, take into your own hands. If it is not what it should be, see that the next legislature make it such. Act together. Act with system. Act like men. The organization for the purpose is complete. The General Committee, the Committees of correspondence for the counties, the Committees of the townships—there is not an inch of ground that is not reached, there is not a citizen of New Jersey whose heart may not be roused by this electric chain. Lay to your hands, then, and employ it well. The work is great, and great must be the effort, and great the confidence. You must trust yourselves. You must trust your fellow citizens. You must trust the legislature. A system of public instruction is a great and arduous enterprise. You must repose such confidence in those who are to frame it as shall enable them to do it well. When it is framed you will do wisely to commit its oversight, subject to legislative supervision, to a judicious Board,* selected carefully from your most tried and faithful men, with wisdom to direct and with devotion to exert its powers. Above all, give the direction of the engine, with a large and liberal discretion, to a skillful engineer. And when it is made, and manned, and set in operation, you must still support it, you must watch over it, you must be yourselves a part of it. The School Fund is not equal to the work. And if it were, it would not be so well for you. Tax yourselves for the support of

* It is said that there are prejudices against a Board of Education, and a Superintendent. We can hardly think that they are general. If so, our appeal is to the good, sterling, common sense of the people of New Jersey. Is there a turnpike road, or a steamboat, or a bank, or a cotton factory, whose affairs are not intrusted to a Board of Managers? Is there a mill in all the State without a miller, or a locomotive in the land without an engineer? Is the education of the people less important than all these? Or is the system of public education to be the only case of a machine that goes alone?

Common Schools and you will never be in danger of taxation from a foreign power—you will need less taxation for the support of pauperism, and the punishment of crime. Look to your school-houses. See that they are convenient of access, that they are comfortable, that they are neat and tasteful. Look to the teachers. See that they are taught themselves, and apt to teach; men that fear God, and love their country. See that they are well accommodated, well treated, well remunerated. Respect them and they will respect themselves, and your children will respect them. Look to the scholars. Have them much in your eye, and always in your heart. Remember you are to grow old among them. Remember you are to die, and leave your country in their hands.

"Good Common Schools," says Governor Everett, of Massachusetts, "are the basis of every wise system of popular education." This is precisely what they are, the basis of a system; but the basis only. Let us now lay their broad foundations deep and strong—foundations that will stand themselves and bear the noble structure which our children and our children's children, as we trust, will rear upon them. We are the citizens of a small State. We can not, by our votes, control the electoral college. We can not, by our political influence, aspire to be the empire State of the confederacy. But there is a nobler empire, whose dominion does not come by numbers or by physical power. We may aspire, if we are just to ourselves and to our opportunities, to wield the suffrages of mind. The men of Athens were but few, their territory small, their soil indifferent. Yet did Athenian arms prevail against the myriads of the East; and to Athenian letters and Athenian arts admiring nations still award the palm. In the same noble lists let us engage; and make the mastery of intellect the prize of our ambition. Let us devote ourselves and consecrate the State to the great work of education. Let us lay hold in earnest of the remarkable advantages which we possess in this respect, in our accessible position, our temperate climate, our freedom from absorbing interests, the moderate habits, and the simple manners of our people. Let us sustain our present seats of learning; and let kindred institutions in every varied form be multiplied about us. Let us collect the children of the land: and on their minds make the mark which shall go down to latest generations. Let other States excel in commerce, or in agriculture, or in manufacturies. But let the staple of our State be mind; the products of our soil, with God to bless the culture, knowledge, and patriotism, and virtue; our highest object and our noblest aim to be the State of Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges, the educating State, the nursery of freemen.

That which makes a good Constitution must keep it, viz: men of wisdom and virtue: qualities that, because they descend not with worldly inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth, for which spare no cost, for by such parsimony, all that is saved is lost. WILLIAM PENN. *Instructions to Council.*

Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

GEORGE WASHINGTON. *Farewell Address.*

The wisdom and generosity of the Legislature in making liberal appropriations in money for the benefit of schools, academies and colleges, is an equal honor to them and their constituents, a proof of their veneration for letters and science, and a portent of great and lasting good to North and South America, and to the world. Great is truth—great is liberty—great is humanity—and they must and will prevail.

JOHN ADAMS. *Inaugural.*

I look to the diffusion of light and education as the resources most to be relied on for ameliorating the condition, promoting the virtue, and advancing the happiness of man. And I do hope, in the present spirit of extending to the great mass of mankind the blessings of instruction, I see a prospect of great advancement in the happiness of the human race, and this may proceed to an indefinite, although not an infinite degree. A system of general instruction, which shall reach every description of our citizens, from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest, so it shall be the latest of all the public concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest. Give it to us, in any shape, and receive for the inestimable boon the thanks of the young, and the blessings of the old, who are past all other services but prayers for the prosperity of their country, and blessings to those who promote it. THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Learned institutions ought to be the favorite objects with every free people; they throw that light over the public mind which is the best security against crafty and dangerous encroachments on the public liberty. They multiply the educated individuals, from among whom the people may elect a due portion of their public agents of every description, more especially of those who are to frame the laws: by the perspicuity, the consistency, and the stability, as well as by the justice and equal spirit of which, the great social purposes are to be answered.

JAMES MADISON.

Moral, political, and intellectual improvement, are duties assigned by the author of our existence to social, no less than to individual man. For the fulfillment of these duties, governments are invested with power, and to the attainment of these ends, the exercise of this power is a duty sacred and indispensable. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

For the purpose of promoting the happiness of the State, it is absolutely necessary that our Government, which unites into one all the minds of the State, should possess in an eminent degree not only the understanding, the passions, and the will, but above all, the moral faculty and the conscience of an individual. Nothing can be politically right that is morally wrong; and no necessity can ever sanctify a law that is contrary to equity. Virtue is the soul of a Republic. To promote this, laws for the suppression of vice and immorality will be as ineffectual as the increase and enlargement of goals. There is but one method of preventing crime and of rendering a republican form of government durable; and that is, by disseminating the seeds of virtue and knowledge through every part of the State, by means of proper modes and places of education; and this can be done effectually only by the interference and aid of the legislature. I am so deeply impressed with this opinion, that were this the last evening of my life, I would not only say to the asylum of my ancestors and my beloved native country, with the patriot of Venice, "*Esto perpetua*," but I would add, as the best proof of my affection for her, my parting advice to the guardians of her liberties, establish and support PUBLIC SCHOOLS in every part of the State. BENJAMIN RUSH.

There is one object which I earnestly recommend to your notice and patronage; I mean our institutions for the education of youth. The importance of common schools is best estimated by the good effects of them where they most abound, and are best regulated. Our ancestors have transmitted to us many excellent institutions, matured by the wisdom and experience of ages. Let them descend to posterity, accompanied with others, which by promoting useful knowledge, and multiplying the blessings of social order, diffusing the influence of moral obligations, may be reputable to us, and beneficial to them. JOHN JAY.

The first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government, is the encouragement of education. A general diffusion of knowledge is the precursor and protector of republican institutions, and in it we must confide as the conservative power that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption and violence. I consider the system of our Common Schools as the palladium of our freedom, for no reasonable apprehension can be entertained of its subversion, as long as the great body of the people are enlightened by education. To increase the funds, to extend the benefits, and to remedy the defects of this excellent system, is worthy of your most deliberate attention. I can not recommend, in terms too strong and impressive, as munificent appropriations as the faculties of the State will authorize for all establishments connected with the interests of education, the exaltation of literature and science, and the improvement of the human mind.

DE WITT CLINTON. *Message as Governor.*

The parent who sends his son into the world uneducated, defrauds the community of a lawful citizen, and bequeathes to it a nuisance.

CHANCELLOR KENT.

I know not to what else we can better liken the strong appetence of the mind for improvement, than to a hunger and thirst after knowledge and truth; nor how we can better describe the province of education, than to say, it does that for the intellect, which is done for the body, when it receives the care and nourishment which are necessary for its growth, health and strength. From this comparison, I think I derive new views of the importance of education. It is now a solemn duty, a tender, sacred trust. What! sir, feed a child's body, and let his soul hunger! pamper his limbs, and starve his faculties! Plant the earth, cover a thousand hills with your droves of cattle, pursue the fish to their hiding places in the sea, and spread out your wheat fields across the plain, in order to supply the wants of that body, which will soon be as cold and as senseless as their poorest clod, and let the pure spiritual essence within you, with all its glorious capacities for improvement, languish and pine! What! build factories, turn in rivers upon the water-wheels, unchain the imprisoned spirits of steam, to weave a garment for the body, and let the soul remain unadorned and naked! What! send out your vessels to the farthest ocean, and make battle with the monsters of the deep, in order to obtain the means of lighting up your dwellings and workshops, and prolonging the hours of labor for the meat that perisheth, and permit that vital spark, which God has kindled, which He has intrusted to our care, to be fanned into a bright and heavenly flame; permit it, I say, to languish and go out!

EDWARD EVERETT.

If I were asked by an intelligent stranger to point out to him our most valued possessions, I would show to him—not our railroads, our warehouses filled with the wealth of all the earth, our ships, our busy wharves and marts, where the car of commerce is ever "thundering loud with her ten thousand wheels;" but I would carry him to one of our public schools, would show him its happy and intelligent children, hushed into reverent silence at their teacher's word, or humming over their tasks with a sound like that of bees in June. I would tell him that here was the foundation on which our material prosperity was reared, that here were the elements from which we constructed the State. Here are the fountains from which flow those streams which make glad our land. The schools of Boston are dear to my heart. Though I can have no personal and immediate interest in them; though no child on earth calls me father; yet most gladly do I contribute to their support, according to my substance; and when I see a father's eye filled with pleasant tears as he hears the music of his child's voice linked to some strain of poetry or burst of eloquence, I can sympathize in the feeling in which I can not share. May the blessing of Heaven rest upon our schools. They are an object worthy of all efforts and sacrifices. We should leave nothing undone which may tend to make them more excellent and more useful. For this we should gather into our own stores all the harvests of experience which have been reaped from other soils.

GEORGE S. HILLARD.

In 1647, when a few scattered and feeble settlements, almo buried in the depths of the forest, were all that constituted t Colony of Massachusetts; when the entire population consisted twenty-one thousand souls; when the external means of the peo were small, their dwellings humble, and their raiment and subsi ence scanty and homely; when the whole valuation of all the co nial estates, both public and private, would hardly equal the inve tory of many a private individual at the present day; when t fierce eye of the savage was nightly seen glaring from the edge the surrounding wilderness, and no defense or succor was at han it was then, amid all these privations and dangers, that the Pilgri Fathers conceived the magnificent idea of a Free* and Univers Education for the People; and, amid all their poverty, they stint themselves to a still scantier pittance; amid all their toils they i posed upon themselves still more burdensome labors; amid a their perils they braved still greater dangers, that they might fi the time and the means to reduce their grand conception to pra tice. Two divine ideas filled their great hearts—their duty to G and to posterity. For the one they built the church; for the oth they opened the school. Religion and Knowledge!—two att butes of the same glorious and eternal truth—and that truth t only one on which immortal or mortal happiness can be secure founded.

As an innovation upon all preëxisting policy and usages, the e tablishment of Free Schools was the boldest ever promulgated sin the commencement of the Christian era. As a theory, it cou have been refuted and silenced by a more formidable array of arg ment and experience than was ever marshaled against any oth opinion of human origin. But time has ratified its soundnes Two centuries now proclaim it to be as wise as it was courageou as beneficent as it was disinterested. It was one of those gran mental and moral experiments whose effects can not be determine in a single generation. But now, according to the manner i which human life is computed, we are the sixth generation from i founders, and have we not reason to be grateful both to God an man for its unnumbered blessings! The sincerity of our gratitude must be tested by our efforts to perpetuate and improve what they established. The gratitude of the lips only is an unholy offerin

HORACE MANN. *Tenth Report of the Secretary of the Massach setts Board of Education.*

* Was the Public School of Massachusetts at first *free*? Was Massachusetts the first to esta lish such a system as is ordained in the law of 1647?—*Ed. of Amer. Jour. of Education.*

The three following propositions describe the broad and everduring foundation on which the Common School system of Massachusetts reposes:

The successive generations of men, taken collectively, constitute one great Commonwealth.

The property of this Commonwealth is pledged for the education of all its youth up to such a point as will save them from poverty and vice, and prepare them for the adequate performance of their social and civil duties.

The successive holders of this property are trustees, bound to the faithful execution of their trust by the most sacred obligations; because embezzlement and pillage from children and descendants are as criminal as the same offenses when perpetrated against contemporaries.

Recognizing these eternal principles of natural ethics, the Constitution of Massachusetts—the fundamental law of the State—after declaring, (among other things,) in the preamble to the first section of the fifth chapter, that "the encouragement of arts and sciences and all good literature tends to the honor of God, the advantage of the Christian religion, and the great benefit of this and the other United States of America," proceeds, in the second section of the same chapter, to set forth the duties of all future Legislators and Magistrates, in the following noble and impressive language:—

"Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties; and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of legislators and magistrates, in all future periods of this Commonwealth, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them; especially the University of Cambridge, public schools, and grammar schools in the towns; to encourage private societies and public institutions, rewards and immunities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and a natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in their dealings; sincerity, good humor, and all social affections and generous sentiments among the people."

HORACE MANN. *Tenth Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education.*

II. THE UNITED STATES NAVAL ACADEMY.

REPORT OF THE BOARD OF VISITORS TO THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY, FOR 1864.

SIR:—The Visitors, appointed "to witness the examination of the several classes and to examine into the state of the police, discipline, and general management of the Naval Academy," for 1864, report as follows:—

I. THEIR OWN PROCEEDINGS.

The regular session of the Board, although several members were in attendance earlier, commenced on Monday, the 20th of May, and continued from day to day until Friday, June 10th. Their investigations as a Board, embraced—

First.—A thorough inspection of the buildings, ships, and material equipment provided by the Department for the residence, subsistence, health, and instruction of the several classes.

Second.—An attendance of the whole or a portion of the Visitors, for a brief period at least, on the examination conducted by the Academic Board, of one or more sections of each class in each study professedly attended to during the year.

Third.—An exhibition of the professional knowledge and skill attained, including the parade, evolutions, tactics, and drill as a military corps—the uses of the rapier, cutlass, musket, and cannon, great and small—the handling of ropes, sails, spars, boats, and everything included in practical seamanship in harbor, afloat, and in action.

Fourth.—Inquiries into the mode of conducting the entrance examination, and the results—the classification and programme of studies for each class—scholarship and conduct rolls—causes of failure to graduate, and system of punishment—chapel exercises, morality, manners, and personal habits of the midshipmen—the accounts and vouchers for the expenditure of government appropriations, including payments made for the use of the cadets—in fine, into the police, discipline, and general management of the institution.

A committee of the Board was authorized and requested to attend the entrance examination of the new class, as well as the final

examination of the graduating class, in order that the report required of the Visitors might cover the operations of the Academy for the year 1864.

Every facility for prosecuting their investigations was extended to the Visitors by the Superintendent, Officers, Professors, and Students.

II. CONDITION OF THE NAVAL ACADEMY IN 1864.

In presenting some details of the condition of the Naval Academy as they found it, and in offering suggestions for its improvement, which the submitting of a report implies, the Visitors are not unmindful that the institution is not at present furnished with permanent buildings and equipments in all respects adapted to its purpose;—that even such as are furnished were selected with reference to a smaller than the present number of pupils;—that its staff of instructors and course of instruction have been disturbed by the pressing exigencies of a great war, calling off into actual service some of its most experienced teachers;—that the education which it aims to give is not general but special, not covering the whole ground of a generous culture, but particularly adapted to make accomplished seamen and midshipmen;—and, moreover, that in an educational field so wide and subjects of inquiry so numerous as attach themselves to the details of such a school, a brief visit, made while the institution is not following its usual daily routine, is not in all respects the most favorable to the formation of just and reliable opinions. They at the same time believe that the government and people expect that the liberal appropriations in its favor will be expended with a judicious economy, and that the knowledge imparted will be accurate, thorough, and professional, and that its graduates will be really fitted for that rank of the service for which they are professedly trained. They recognize the fact that the school is yet in the youth of its development, and also that its purpose is not only to perpetuate naval science as it has been taught, but to maintain a progressive course of instruction, engrafting thereon all necessary or possible improvements.

Organization for Administration and Instruction.

The Visitors find the Naval Academy, subordinate to the direct supervision of the Department, under the immediate government of a Superintendent, Commodore George S. Blake, who is held responsible for its discipline and management. He is assisted as chief executive officer by the Commandant of Midshipmen, Commander Donald M. Fairfax, who resides in the Academy building on shore, and is also head of the department of Seamanship, Naval

Gunnery, and Naval and Infantry Tactics. The Commandant is assisted in the different departments of his duty on ship and shore by three senior assistants and eleven assistants, nine of the latter being of the rank of lieutenant, and the remainder lieutenant-commanders. Two of the senior assistants have charge of the Practice-ships Marion and Macedonian, and also assist in instruction; six of the assistants are engaged in executive duty on board the School-ships Constitution and Santee, while the others, as well as these, are charged with certain branches of instruction in the department of which the Commandant is chief.

There are also attached to the Academic Staff one Professor of Astronomy, Navigation, and Surveying; two Professors of Mathematics, with six assistants in the same department; one Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, with two assistants; one Professor of Ethics and English Studies, with nine assistants; one Professor of the French language, with an assistant; one Professor of the Spanish language; one Professor of Drawing and Draughting, with an assistant; one Sword-master, with an assistant; and one Librarian, who acts also as assistant in Mathematics, and Ethics and English studies. The officers not attached to the Academic Staff include a Paymaster, a Surgeon, with two assistants, a Chaplain, (with three, who are engaged as instructors,) a Commissary, Storekeeper, Secretary, Treasurer, and clerks to the Superintendent and Commandant.

The Academic Board is composed of the Superintendent, the officers in charge of the Practice and School-ships, and the professors, except that the professors of French, Spanish, and Drawing take part only upon matters pertaining to their own departments. The Board is required to conduct and regulate all examinations of candidates and students, preparing the necessary papers and reports in connection therewith, to prescribe the order and times of instruction, to recommend text-books for the approval of the Naval Department, and books, instruments, and other necessary material for instruction, to recommend at pleasure the restoration or farther trial of students that have been dismissed or found deficient in scholarship, to grant certificates of graduation, and to report from time to time, on the system of studies and instruction pursued, and propose such improvements as experience may suggest.

Buildings and Material Equipment.

The material arrangements for the accommodation of the Academy, for the lodging, subsistence, and comfort of the pupils in health and sickness, and for study and instruction, both scientific and profes-

sional, although made on a sudden emergency, for temporary occupancy, and for a smaller number, are far from being insufficient in extent, or particularly objectionable, when compared with similar arrangements for other great schools. The main building on shore is of wood, originally intended to lodge and board a large number of guests, and as adapted to the uses of the Academy, accommodates about half of the classes as well as most boarding schools provide for their pupils. The arrangements are not as convenient or as safe from fire as those at Annapolis; but they are too good to be complained of, even if they do require a strict observance of regulations, or special organization and diligence to protect from fire, which would carry mourning into many homes. Good discipline and good recitations, and a large amount of military and naval knowledge are secured under the difficulties such as they are, which the Department, be they great or small, will, doubtless, remove at the earliest possible moment. In any permanent or temporary arrangement, on ship or shore, while the privacy and comfort of separate lodgings for pupils should as far as practicable be secured, the Visitors recommend that convenient halls be provided, properly ventilated, warmed and lighted, and supplied with the best dictionaries, encyclopedias, and naval histories and biographies—to be occupied for study at certain hours by such pupils as have not acquired the power of concentrating attention, and the habit of solitary study—a power and habit of the highest importance, but very rarely attained. The same rooms might be open to the pupils at certain hours every day for the purpose of reading naval histories and biographies, and for consulting the encyclopedias and other books of reference. The formation of right habits of study and the habit and mode of reading such books to the best advantage should be made a matter of special and frequent inculcation by the head of each department of study.

The lack of suitable buildings for lodging, subsistence, and study, for a portion of the pupils, is supplied by an extension of the School-ship System, first inaugurated on board of the "Plymouth," at Annapolis, in 1849, in our system, although always the main feature in the French system of naval education. The old "Constitution" and the "Santee," properly moored in the harbor of Newport and adapted, are used for the residence and study of the younger classes, which are in this way brought more readily into the daily routine of the school and the service without the vulgar annoyances, to which the youngest classes are almost universally subjected, when lodged in the immediate neighborhood of the next older class. If School-

ships are to constitute a permanent, integral feature of the Academy, the details of arrangements for separate lodging and class study require additional attention. For the present, recitations are attended in suitable buildings on Goat Island, near which the ships are moored and reached by covered passages. On this island is sufficient room for all sorts of athletic sports, military drill, and target practice.

The "Macedonian" and "Marion" are used for practice in the evolution of guns and other naval tactics by the several classes. To these are added, at least for the purposes of the summer cruise, the screw steamer "Marblehead" and the yacht "America."

Number of Pupils—Entrance Examination.

The number of pupils belonging to the Naval Academy in the year closing June, 1864, was 458, distributed into four classes, generally according to the period of their connection with the institution, with a staff of 57 officers and instructors. This is an astonishing development of the Academy in respect to pupils, as well as in the number of the teaching staff, and equipment for professional training, since Oct. 10th, 1845, when the Academy found a location at Fort Severn in Annapolis, or since January 1st, 1846, when it was reported to have 36 midshipmen and six professors and instructors, including the Superintendent. To judge of the progressive development of the institution, and of the results of the annual examination which they were appointed to witness, the Visitors deemed it necessary to ascertain the average condition of each class as to age and attainments, at the time of becoming connected with the Academy, and with the general results of the entrance examination—this examination being the only check on the admission of unqualified candidates—no previous examination being held in the districts or States from which they come.

By law and regulations governing the admission of candidates into the Academy, the maximum number of pupils is limited to 526, viz., two for every Congressional district or territory, appointed on the nomination of the member or delegate, from actual residents of the district, if such nomination is made to fill a vacancy duly notified, prior to the first day of July in any year, and if not so made, by the Secretary of the Navy; and twenty-five more appointed by the President, two for and from the District of Columbia, ten from the country at large, ten from the sons of officers of the army and navy, and three from the enlisted boys of the navy. All candidates who receive notice of their provisional appointment must present themselves to the Superintendent for examination be-

tween the 20th and 31st of July, or September in case of second appointments. The examination is twofold; first, before a medical board, consisting of the surgeon resident and two other medical officers designated by the Department; and second, before the Academic Board. The candidate must be found, according to the law of 1864, to be between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years—of good moral character—physically sound, well formed, and of robust constitution—and pass a satisfactory examination in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography and English grammar.

The requisition as to age was advanced from 16 in 1861, to its present maximum in 1864, while the Board was in session, and conforms in that respect to the age which they had decided to recommend. The traveling expenses of the successful candidates are paid.

The Visitors were furnished on application with tables exhibiting the statistics of these entrance examinations from 1851 to 1863 inclusive. From these tables it appears that out of 1,522 candidates, nominated and appointed conditionally, but afterwards examined, 313 or one-fifth of the whole were rejected as unqualified, although the attainments required were such as any graduate of a common school should possess. Of the number (1,209) admitted, 466, more than one-third, failed on the first year's course. Out of the number who failed at the earlier examinations, three hundred and thirty-one were turned back for a second trial, and after floundering along in the lower sections, only a very small per cent. succeeded in graduating. Of the whole number admitted, (1,209,) only 269 graduated, including 93 who were received into the service from 1861 to 1864 before completing their studies.

From another table, covering the entrance examinations from 1860 to 1864 inclusive, it appears that out of 1,093 candidates who presented themselves for admission, 807 were admitted, while 53 were rejected by the Medical Board, 219 by the Academic Board, 11 withdrew, and 3 were found to be over the maximum age.

From another table, exhibiting the ages of the successful and unsuccessful candidates, it appears that out of 1,141 candidates examined, 201 (18 per cent.) were rejected, and of the number rejected, 177 were under 17 years of age. Of the 940 admitted, 313 (33 per cent.) failed the first year, and of the number that failed, 254 were under 17 years of age. The average age of the candidates admitted was 16 years and 2 months, and of those who failed, 15 years and 10 months.

The fact that one-fifth of the whole number nominated failed to

pass the examination in the most rudimentary branches of a common English education—and in only the most elementary portions of these branches—indicates unmistakably how little regard has been paid to school attendance and proficiency in the selection of candidates. To judge how far these failures might be attributed to a laudable strictness on the part of the Academic Board, the entrance examination papers, which are filed away from year to year, were called for, and from those it appears that the questions asked and exercises required were few and simple—far too few and simple—far below the requirements of any Public High School; and yet such wretched perversions of the orthography of the most common words, such mistakes in American geography, such bungling use of the English language in the composition of a simple letter, such numerous failures in arithmetical operations not going beyond the elementary rules and simple exercises in fractions and proportion, it would be difficult to gather from all the Public High School entrance examinations of the country. More strictness on the part of the Academic Board would have saved the government hundreds of thousands of dollars, for of the candidates allowed to pass, two-fifths fail on the studies of the first year, although these studies belong to a good English education, and are preliminary to a special scientific naval training—showing a want of suitable preparatory knowledge, of aptitude for study, or of will and desire to learn. A portion of those who fail the first year are put back for a second year's trial, and in some instances for a third, and the proportion of those thus put back who finally succeed in graduating is very small, thereby causing a total loss of the thousands of dollars expended upon each. From data gathered from the annual reports of the Department, it appears the annual expense of a pupil of the Naval school exceeds $1,500, and that each graduate who has been four years in the institution costs the government over $10,000. But the pecuniary loss is not the only consideration—the places filled by pupils, no matter what their courage or general ability, unable or unwilling to profit by the opportunities of scientific and professional instruction so lavishly provided, might be filled by competent, ambitious, diligent, and courageous young men, if they could have had their qualifications tested by a competitive examination.

Daily Routine.

The morning gun calls the cadets up at 6 o'clock. Inspection of the rooms follows, when the bedding must be found arranged, the rooms swept, and every thing in order. Ten minutes are given to chapel services, and half an hour to breakfast, which is over at 7.15.

Forty minutes recreation are then allowed, during which sick-roll is called and such as report themselves indisposed are marched to the hospital and reported to the surgeon. At 7.55 the sections are formed under the supervision of the Officer of the Day, assisted by the section leaders, and at 8 o'clock, on given signal, they are marched in close order to their recitation rooms, in perfect silence and with strict military decorum. All who are not engaged in the recitation rooms are expected to be preparing their lessons in their own rooms, and it is the duty of the superintendents of floors to see that they are there. The dismissal and re-formation of sections at the end of each hour are conducted with similar formality and regulated by special signals. Study and recitation continue until 1 o'clock, when the cadets are formed in order by the captains of crews, (the whole corps being organized in nine guns' crews, for the purposes of discipline and practical instruction,) all special orders and rules for the day are read, and they are then marched into the mess hall for dinner, which occupies forty minutes. From 1.40 to 1.55 recreation is allowed and the sections are then again formed as in the morning for recitation and study. At 4 o'clock ten minutes are given to preparation for drill, as may be the order of the day, and then follow instruction in fencing, infantry or artillery drill, and recreation until parade and roll-call at sunset. Supper immediately succeeds, to which half an hour is given, and recreation until study-call at 6.30 or 7.00, according to the season. Study hours continue until tattoo, at 9.30, during which time the cadets must all be in their rooms, and after inspection of rooms all lights are extinguished at 10 o'clock.

The routine on board ship is as far as possible the same. No control is exercised over the occupation of the time by the cadets during study hours, provided good order is preserved. No studies or exercises are required on Saturday afternoon and one-half of each class may then be allowed liberty beyond the limits of the Academy. A vacation is given at the close of the second year, the only one in the whole course. As means of recreation, chess, draughts, and all games of chance are strictly forbidden. On the other hand, every facility is afforded for games of ball, boxing, fencing, boating, &c.

Course of Instruction, Examinations, and Merit-Rolls.

The course of instruction at the Naval Academy is comprised in eight departments, with their special branches, as follows:—

First Department, in six branches—Practical Seamanship, Theory and Practice of Gunnery, Naval Tactics, Infantry Tactics, Howitzer Drill, and the Art of Defense.

Second Department, Mathematics, in seven branches—Arithmetic and Algebra, Geometry, plane and solid, Trigonometry, Mensuration, Descriptive Geometry, Analytical Geometry, and the Differential and Integral Calculus.

Third Department, in four branches—Astronomy, Practical Astronomy, Navigation, and Surveying.

Fourth Department, in eight branches—Mechanics of Solids, Mechanics of Liquids, Pneumatics, Acoustics, Electricity, Heat, Chemistry, and the Steam-Engine.

Fifth Department, in seven branches—English Grammar, Descriptive Geography, Physical Geography, Outlines of History, Rhetoric, Ethics, and Political Science.

Sixth Department—the French Language.

Seventh Department—the Spanish Language.

Eighth Department—Drawing and Draughting.

These studies are distributed into four annual courses for the four regular classes, each class being subdivided into convenient sections, usually according to the relative standing of the members. During the last year the first class, of 36 cadets, has been graded into three sections; the second class, of 59 cadets, into five sections; the third class into six sections; and the fourth class, during the first term, with 176 cadets, into fourteen sections, and in the second term, with 156 cadets, into twelve sections—each section receiving separate instruction.

The more difficult portions of the several branches may be reserved for the higher sections of the classes, and it is frequently the fact that in certain branches no instruction whatever is given to the lowest sections. Deviation from the general rule for the admission of cadets only in the month of September has made the formation of "Intermediate Classes" necessary, so that there are now two divisions of the second class and two divisions of the third class. By this means the number of sections is increased, the labors of instruction augmented, and much inconvenience in other respects created. The demands of the times have also introduced other irregularities into the course, hurrying the more forward sections through their studies and detailing them into active service at the close of the third year, with or without a graduating examination, while the lower sections are retained through the whole four years.

The Commandant of Midshipmen and the several professors are each at the head of a special department, with such assistants as may be necessary. The professors, instructors, and assistants are responsible for the regular and orderly conduct of their respective

classes and sections while under instruction, and must report all want of preparation, absence, or misconduct. Daily notes are taken of the progress and relative merit of each pupil in each of his studies. The assistants must make weekly reports of such notes to the heads of their departments, who in turn report to the Superintendent, recommending such transfers as should be made from one section to another. The scale of daily merit in each study embraces seven grades, with corresponding values designated by numbers, as follows:—Thorough, (4.0)—Very Good, (3.5)—Good, (3.0)—Tolerable, (2.5)—Indifferent, (2.0)—Bad, (1.0)—Complete Failure, (0.) The average standing for the week in each study accompanies the report. Monthly reports are drawn up by the Academic Board for each month in the academic year, showing the relative standing of the members of each class in their different studies, and also their conduct or demerits. These reports are based upon the weekly reports and upon the results of the examinations, when such are held within the month, and are posted for public inspection. The examination weeks are considered of equal weight with those of the month.

The examinations are held by the Academic Board in the months of February and June, and are sufficiently thorough to enable the Board to decide upon the proficiency and relative merits of the members of the several classes. After each June examination a "general merit-roll" is formed for each class, for which purpose a maximum number or value is assigned to each of the principal branches in the several departments. The total amount of these maxima throughout the course is 1,000, and they are distributed among the departments and branches, for the different classes, as follows:—In the first year, to mathematics, 20—grammar and rhetoric, 10—geography, 10—history and composition, 10—drawing, 10—conduct, 5—total, 65;—In the second year, to seamanship, 20—mathematics, 35—grammar and rhetoric, 15—history and composition, 10—French, 30—drawing, 25—conduct, 15—total, 150;—In the third year, to seamanship, 40—gunnery, 20—infantry tactics, 25—howitzer drill, 20—mathematics, 45—general astronomy, 25—practical astronomy, navigation, and surveying, 15—mechanics, 30—physics, 25—moral science and international law, 20—French, 40—conduct, 30—total, 335;—In the fourth year, to seamanship, 100—gunnery, 60—naval tactics, 30—practical astronomy, navigation, and surveying, 75—physics, 30—steam-engine, 35—moral science and international law, 20—Spanish, 50—conduct, 50—total, 450. The minima values are fixed at one-third of the corresponding maxima.

The "general merit-roll" includes only such as pass a satisfactory examination in all the principal branches of their class and have not exceeding 200 demerits recorded against them. In the formation of the roll, the individual having the highest standing in any branch for the year receives the corresponding maximum number, while the one who has the lowest standing receives the corresponding minimum. The intermediate members of the class receive numbers proceeding by equal differences from the maximum to the minimum, in the order of their relative merit as fixed by their "class merit-rolls." The gradation for conduct is determined by allowing the maximum number to such as have no demerits, and for others diminishing that maximum by $\frac{1}{100}$ part for every demerit recorded against them. All the numbers thus assigned to the several members for the different branches of study and for conduct are then added together, and the members are arranged in each class according to the aggregates thus obtained. For the graduating class a "graduating merit-roll" is formed by adding the aggregate numbers of each member upon the several "general merit-rolls" for the four years and arranging the order of the members according to these new aggregates. The highest number reached upon the "graduating merit-roll," by any one of the class just graduating, was 859.

If any student at any examination fails to pass a satisfactory examination in any principal branch, or has recorded against him more than 200 demerits since the commencement of the academic year, a report is made of the case to the Secretary of the Navy, showing the habits of study, aptitude for study and for sea duties, and his general habits and conduct, and upon his decision the student is dismissed, or upon recommendation of the Academic Board, allowed to continue at the Academy for further trial.

The final graduating examination is held by a special Board and occurs, by a recent regulation, not less than one year after the close of the course. This examination embraces seamanship and naval tactics, practical gunnery, navigation, and management of steam-engines, and the standing in these branches is combined to determine the relative merits of the candidates. In assigning numbers, 1,000 is considered the maximum and 333 the minimum for such as are considered qualified for promotion, and the Board assigns such numbers within these limits as will fairly express the relative qualifications of the members of the class. The numbers thus assigned, when added to the numbers already assigned on the "graduating merit-roll," determine the standing of the graduates as ensigns; the highest number taking precedence.

Text-Books. Studies of the past Year.

The method of teaching as at present pursued is almost wholly by means of text-books and recitations. A series of lectures is delivered in connection with the recitations in Natural Philosophy and Chemistry. Without underrating the office of the text-book, the success of the French Polytechnic method of teaching even the higher Mathematics by lectures, collateral study, and examination, and the experience of all schools, of the power of the human voice and of the human eye to win, hold, and harmonize attention, should not be lost to this institution, many of whose pupils need the influence of such a method to vitalize their powers of thinking and to bring within their grasp the general principle or doctrine of the subjects taught.

The division of the classes into small sections of 12–14 midshipmen each, of nearly equal standing, tends to secure the personal and thorough instruction of each and all. The attempt was made, by furnishing prepared blanks to the several departments, to ascertain the character and actual amount of the studies and exercises accomplished by the several sections during the eight months of study of the year 1863–4. The returns made are not complete, but it appears that the English studies of the lowest class (in 12–14 sections) have consisted of one lesson a week in Spelling and Derivation, four in Bullion's English Grammar, four during the first term in Cornell's Geography, and during the second term in General History, with daily exercises in Composition and the exercise of the Voice; in Mathematics, five lessons a week during the first term in Greenleaf's Common School Arithmetic, and during the second term in Davies' University Algebra. In the upper sections, the Algebra was commenced within the first term and more or less nearly finished at the close of the year. The highest section had also five lessons a week for three weeks in Davies' Elementary Geometry (5 books) and instruction twice a week in Drawing. The space in the several text-books actually gone over varied considerably in the different sections. It will be seen, therefore, that the studies of this class, with the exception of Algebra and Geometry, are simply those of every common school, and yet the lower section is reported as having succeeded but "imperfectly" in Grammar, and "very imperfectly" in Algebra. It is also to be stated that a part of the class had received eight weeks additional preparatory instruction during August and September, 1863.

In the third class, of six sections, there were three lessons per

week, during the first term, in American History, and during the second term in Rhetoric. The lower section prepared six English compositions each term—the highest section, weekly compositions through the second term. All the sections prepared three lessons weekly in French during the first term and four lessons during the second, but with very unequal progress. In Mathematics, (five lessons per week,) Algebra was completed by the lower sections and reviewed by the higher in the first four or five weeks, when Elementary Geometry was taken up by all, and completed in the first term by the highest section. In the second term, Elementary Geometry for three weeks by the lowest section, and Trigonometry for the rest of the term—in the highest section, Trigonometry for ten weeks, Mensuration two weeks, and Analytical Geometry commenced, for three weeks. The first section had also three lessons a week in Marine and Topographical Drawing, and during the first term one lesson a week in Seamanship.

In the second class, of five sections, during the first term, five lessons a week in Analytical Geometry, replaced in the highest section by the Differential and Integral Calculus for five weeks; four lessons a week in Statics, to which the first section added Dynamics, three weeks; five lessons a week in Surveying, three weeks in each term, with practical exercises. The lowest sections had also four lessons a week in French, and the first section weekly lessons in Seamanship and Infantry Tactics, and two lessons a week in Gunnery. In the second term, five lessons a week in Dynamics, Hydrostatics, Pneumatics and Acoustics, with twelve lectures, Surveying, three weeks, and Astronomy, ten weeks. Two lessons a week in Wayland's Moral Science. The first section had also two lessons a week in Gunnery.

The first class, consisting of the three more advanced sections of the second class, and in its third year of study, during the first term were pursuing chiefly second class studies, having five lessons a week in Physics, including Statics, Dynamics, Hydrostatics, Acoustics, Magnetism, and Electricity, with sixteen lectures; four lessons a week in Theory and Practice of Navigation (six weeks) and General Astronomy (eleven weeks;) two lessons a week in Seamanship, and two in Gunnery, Naval Light Artillery, and Field Fortifications. In the second term, four lessons a week in Heat and Chemistry, with nine lectures; three in Wayland's Ethics and Kent's Constitution of U. S., and International Law; three in the Theory and Practice of Navigation; two in Seamanship; and one in Gunnery, &c. Two lessons a week were given through the year in Spanish, by means of the French.

In addition to the daily lessons of each class are the general practical exercises by divisions, by the higher classes on shore embracing daily exercises in Fencing, three exercises weekly in Infantry Drill, Howitzer Drill once a week, the Great Gun Drill upon the Practice Ships twice weekly in favorable weather, and a certain amount of Target Practice by the first class. The younger classes on the school-ships have also their special drills. Special instruction is given them in boating, and the numerous cutters and launches belonging to the ships afford ample opportunity for recreation and practice of this kind at suitable times. The use of the "Rainbow," a schooner-rigged craft of 15–20 tons, is also not unfrequently allowed to pleasure parties made up from the cadets. Weekly bathing is enjoined and practiced throughout the year as a sanitary regulation, but the absence of the cadets from port during the summer months, while on the cruise, prevents the attainment of that knowledge and skill in the art of swimming, which seem to the Visitors so essential a requisite.

The general results of the examinations and exercises as observed by the Visitors, may be stated as in general very favorable. The examinations of the classes were made by sections and conducted by the individual professors of the departments, with great fairness and impartiality, without any purpose of embarrassing the pupils, and for the single object of eliciting the extent, accuracy, and vividness of the pupil's knowledge of the topic. Written lists of questions were furnished to the cadets on entering the examination rooms, which were usually answered in writing upon the blackboard, with opportunity for oral explanation. The difference in the proficiency shown by the higher and lower sections, in all except the first class, was very strongly marked. In the written answers, the writing was fair and legible, and the spelling and composition very creditable—revealing in these respects an immense improvement upon the entrance examination papers of the same cadets. The Visitors would suggest that in future examinations there should be more of paper, even if there should be less of blackboard work, and that a portion of the questions should be handed in on slips by the Visitors and answered in writing with ink, in presence of the Board, by every member of the section present.

The practical professional exercises of the cadets upon the parade ground and on board ship, embracing all the different branches of shore and ship duty, (including a harbor cruise on board the Practice Steamer,) and designed to exemplify the proficiency of the classes in seamanship, gunnery, and naval and infantry tactics, were

performed in the most satisfactory manner, justifying the professional pride manifestly felt by those taking part in them. Moreover, these exercises, instead of being executed under the direction, as heretofore, of the respective Academic officers in command, were conducted under the charge wholly of officers appointed from the midshipmen themselves.

Physical Training.

The unavoidable exposures and risks of the naval service require not only a sound mind—a mind well informed, quick, and accurate in its operations, but a sound body—a body supple, athletic, and tough to resist the rapid alternations and continuous exposures of wet and cold weather. Although careful and continuous training can do much to develope and strengthen the qualities referred to, the records of the Academy and of the service, as well as the present appearance of many of the cadets, show that sufficient regard has not been paid to vigor and elasticity of physical constitution, in the original appointment, or the entrance medical examination. The regular military drill and evolutions, the small arm and other exercises, in which the whole corps participates, the professional practice in gunnery and seamanship, all help to supply these deficiencies. There is still room for more careful scrutiny for inherited tendencies and hidden defects, in the entrance medical examination, as well as in the regular course of naval education, for a well arranged system of gymnastic exercises and athletic games, to give suppleness to the joints, steadiness to the nerves, hardness to the bones, and elasticity to the sinews. Such games and sports as the young universally accept with eagerness and pursue with unflagging interest, should be systematically introduced. Ample time, room, and encouragement by rank, prizes, and publicity, should be given to make a fondness and indulgence in such games as cricket, football, leaping, boating, &c., the habit of every member of the lower classes at least. An hour a day devoted to these healthful sports, even if taken from the study and class-room,—even more, if taken from the idle lounging, or the listless walk, or vulgar scuffling, will give at once health and strength, increased capacity for study, and valuable social qualities and manly virtues—all results of emphatically the highest professional value.

As part of the physical training of naval cadets, the expansion of the chest and the culture of the vocal organs should receive more special attention than the word of command on parade, and the questions and answers in the examination would indicate they had received. A clear, full, decisive voice is an element of influence on

the deck at all times, and of power in the hour of danger, as well as on the field or in the senate chamber.

The first beginning of habits, secret or open, which waste the vigor of the mind and body, should be watched with professional skill as well as parental interest, and those cadets in whom such indulgencies have grown into habits, should be cut off from the institution and service without hesitation and without reprieve.

Domestic and Sanitary Arrangements.

The institution is peculiarly fortunate in having had for years a Commissary who understands his business and gives universal satisfaction to all concerned. The neatness of the kitchen, the supply, preparation, and serving of the food, the geniality, good order, and enjoyment of the mess-hours, and the fact that no complaint reached the Visitors from any one of the 450 boys, blessed with good health and plenty of physical exercise, makes the record of this department an exception to similar departments in other large collegiate institutions. This comes from having the right man in the right place.

The hospital arrangements on shipboard and on shore, although not as large and quiet as would be desirable or as would be provided specially in permanent quarters, are sufficient for the demands on their accommodations. The location of the institution and the judicious arrangement and management of the Academy as to cleanliness, exercise, and diet, as well as the presence of a surgeon and two assistants on the Academic staff, and numerous attendants for hospital service, would seem to act as a preventive of accidents and disease, the mean daily percentage of sick on ship and shore from Oct. 1st to May 31st being returned at a little more than three per cent. out of an average attendance of 447 midshipmen. In calling for the annual reports to the Department of the medical condition of the institution, the Visitors were informed that a duplicate copy or abstract was not retained. Such copy or abstract would be highly convenient, and would seem to be even necessary, if it is deemed advisable to have a periodical inspection of the sanitary condition and requirements of the school.

Religious Observances and Instruction.

The regulations require that the students shall be assembled in the chapel for prayers daily, fifteen minutes before the breakfast hour, and that divine service shall be held on Sunday, which officers and students are expected to attend, unless excused on the ground of conscientious scruples, declared in writing by the former, and by the parents or guardians of the latter. These daily and Sunday ex-

ercises are conducted by the regular Chaplain of the institution. He is at the present time assisted in these and other such voluntary religious labors by three other chaplains of the Navy, who are now in residence as assistant professors. There are four Bible classes composed of cadets, and over one-eighth of the members are communicants in the different denominations of Newport. The student who brings, in his moral culture from home, religious convictions and habits, can easily preserve and strengthen them here, and no amount of instruction in the institution can compensate for the neglect of parental example and teaching in this respect. The absence of the religious element in the character and training of youth is a fundamental defect, and no institution of learning, special or general, can safely, for any length of time, dispense with appropriate and adequate means of religious instruction and a practical recognition of religious obligations, consistent with due regard to the religious convictions of individuals and the equal rights of all religious denominations. Such individual convictions and denominational rights can be best respected, not by ignoring the subjects themselves, but by selecting the chaplain from time to time so as to represent different religious denominations, and in all cases, in reference to his ability to be useful as chaplain in this institution.

The reading of the Sabbath, and one of the exercises of Monday morning might be so arranged as to harmonize with the religious observances and uses of Sunday, and the whole be made to unfold and enforce the great, definite, and unchanging obligations of every human being to his fellow-men, to his country, and to God.

As part of the religious and moral instruction of the Academy, more at least should be attempted to prevent, and if these unfortunately exist, to eradicate certain vulgar and vicious habits, whose beginnings are small, but which ultimately take complete possession of the individual. Although the Visitors can not, from their own knowledge, speak of its existence, they have had too many assurances from those who did know, to have any doubt of the prevalence of the vulgar and immoral practice of profanity, and that several of those addicted to it are among the youngest members of their classes, who came here entirely pure in this respect. The medical and police experience of the institution detects the occasional existence of other tastes and habits more directly affecting the health and morality of their victims, and which should and doubtless do receive the considerate and vigilant attention of the authorities, especially of the Chaplain, Surgeon and Superintendent.

Discipline.

The Superintendent is charged with and held responsible for the good order and discipline of the Academy, and it is made the duty of every officer, professor, and instructor, having knowledge of any violation of law or regulation, or of any crime, irregularity, neglect, or other improper conduct, of which any student or any other one has been guilty, to report the same without delay to the Superintendent. Offenses are defined with great minuteness and precision, and the circle of punishments embraces demerits on the roll of conduct, private and public reprimand, confinement to Academy grounds, to room, or to guard-room, and withdrawal on necessity, or dismission. In the administration of discipline, the Superintendent is clothed with much power, which is exercised by the present incumbent with great discretion and the happiest results. The private memorandum and letter book of this officer, respecting every case of discipline during the year, was placed before the Visitors, and they can bear willing testimony to the preventive admonition and parental regard with which he has exercised his authority.

Demerits, to be considered in making up the conduct-rolls, are assigned for all offenses. Such delinquencies as are not deemed deserving of severer punishment are grouped into four classes, which count ten, eight, six, four, and two demerits respectively, besides a miscellaneous class counting from one to ten demerits according to circumstances. The *total* demerits of each cadet is expressed by the sum of all demerits standing against him on record for the year, increased for the third class by one-sixth, for the second class by one third, and for the first class by one-half.

No punishment of any kind can be inflicted by other authority than that of the Superintendent. Report is read at evening parade of all demerits and other punishments that have been inflicted during the day, and opportunity is always given for excuse or explanation. Full record is made of every case of discipline, and a monthly conduct-roll is publicly posted showing the number of demerits against each cadet. It is evident that this conduct-roll does not fairly represent the character and conduct of the cadets, as a large number of demerits may be gained by numerous minor offenses, which involve neither immorality nor lawlessness, while a cadet who has been guilty of most flagrant acts of vice and disobedience may still be charged with but few demerits. Yet the conduct-roll has but a subordinate influence in determining the general merit-rolls, and in the question of dismissal the fuller record of punishments, as

well as the demerit-roll, has its weight in determining the action of the authorities.

Financial Affairs.

All money appropriated for the support of the Naval Academy is drawn for by the Paymaster and by him deposited with the Sub-Treasurer in Boston. The Paymaster draws upon him, from time to time, to make his disbursements.

The principal heads of expenditure for the fiscal year ending June 30th, 1864, are as follows:—

Pay of Commissioned and Warrant Officers, Midshipmen, Seamen, and others,	$241,771.71
Pay of Professors and Assistants,	35,000.00
Expenses of the Academy, School and Practice Ships, Surgeon's necessaries, contingent expenses, and repairs of all kinds,	72,753.84

The total of all expenditures from 1st July, 1863, to May 31st, 1864, is reported at $383,419.41.

From the pay of the midshipmen, which is $500 per annum, $100 are reserved yearly to be paid upon graduation, though this sum is sometimes diminished by unavoidable circumstances. There is also deducted from their pay, the amount of board—at present $16.50 per month—and $3.00 per month for washing. The aggregate of these sums is paid monthly by the Paymaster to the Commissary. Articles of clothing for the midshipmen are provided under contract by the Storekeeper with the approval of the Commandant. All other articles for their use are purchased by the Storekeeper, from funds provided by the Paymaster, at prices sanctioned by the Commandant.

The midshipmen receive such articles as they desire upon requisition approved by the Commandant, and no other articles are permitted to be sold to them than those which the Storekeeper is authorized to have. Each midshipman has a pass-book in which his purchases are entered, and regular report is made by the Storekeeper to the Paymaster, who charges against each the aggregate amount of his purchases. On the 30th April, 1864, the amount of balances still due to the midshipmen was $44,579.93, the aggregate of indebtedness by them being only $111.90. The amounts to the credit of the members of the graduating class vary from $180 to $400.

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behind the reports of this committee, and deputed one of th number to examine personally the original accounts of the Comm sary and Storekeeper. As the result of this examination, whi was conducted with the most rigid scrutiny, it is but justice to sta that they found the accounts correct in all their details, and t prices of all articles as low as they can be purchased at wholes in the city of New York, and the Visitors consider the financ affairs of the Academy as conducted with commendable skill a fidelity.

While the Visitors bear willing testimony to the fidelity wi which the financial affairs of the Academy, as well as the depa ments of subsistence, discipline, and instruction, are and have be administered, they can not but express their disappointment at t very small number of officers of the lowest rank which the insti tion has contributed to the naval service. With an aggregate a nual expenditure of several hundred thousand dollars, the aggrega number of graduates, since the opening of the four years' course, 1851, including the three classes of 1858, '59 and '60, which we ordered into active service in 1862 and '63, before completing th studies, is but 269, or at the rate of less than 22 each year, at expense to the country of over $12,000 for each graduate. If t 93 who entered the service with only two or three years' residen had completed their course, the aggregate expense for each gradu would have exceeded $15,000. This, as it appears to the Visito small result, is due mainly to the want of care in selecting can dates, and the very low standard of general scholarship required entering the Academy. The experience of this institution is t same as that of others of the same character; any mode of selecti which does not test in advance the natural aptitude and preparati for the special studies of the course, and exclude rigorously all w are found deficient, will burden the institution with a number of s dents which will have to be thrown off after months and sometim years of struggling to incorporate them into the regular classes and the manifest injury, in the meantime, of the scholarship and ch acter of the institution. While a nomination by patronage, and pass examination have a direct tendency to reduce the average al ity of the selected candidates to the minimum required, a compe tive examination raises the general average to the maximum abili of all who apply.

Graduating Class of 1864.

The present graduating class (consisting after the final examinati of 31) at the close of its third year has completed the whole cou

prescribed, excepting that the Calculus has been omitted and that Surveying has been limited to instruction in Harbor and Coast Surveying, from Bowditch. Steam and the Steam-engine have received fuller attention from this than any preceding class, embracing six weeks of theory and practice on board of the steamer Marblehead —altogether too little attention for a department so important. Two summer cruises have been made by this class—both coast cruises—the first on board the John Adams, from June 6th to Sept. 30th, 1862; the second from 16th June to 25th Sept., 1864, in which the following vessels were united, viz.: Flagship Macedonian, sloop of war Marion, screw steamer Marblehead, and the yacht America. Upon these cruises the midshipmen were practiced in all the regular duties attaching to the posts of lieutenant and master, taking by turns upon themselves the working of the ship, in the different vessels; making and calculating observations for determining the ship's position, going through all possible manœuvres and performing the duties incident to the management of ships in action, in heavy weather, or in the many emergencies which arise requiring superior skill in seamanship. They were engaged in instructing the crews in gunnery, in infantry and sword-drill, and in drill of the battery. They were also detailed for actual boat service, and for the transferring of howitzers and marines from ship to shore. During the last cruise Meyer's code of signals was used by the graduating class as signal officers, in communicating from vessel to vessel in the fleet, and instruction was also given in the Naval Code of signals, and in Navigation throughout the cruise to all cadets on board. In addition to these cruises the yacht America, in charge of cadets of this class, as commanding officers, has been engaged in the performance of despatch-boat duty, and also special "coast picket duty" in search for the Tallahassee.

The experience of this class—made up of three advanced sections of what is now the second class (the graduating class of 1865,) would seem to indicate, that under a system of appointment that should admit from the start only those who had maturity of mind and requisite scholarship, the professional studies of the Academy might be completed in three years. This is one year longer than the course of the French Naval School at Brest, the entrance examination of which would exclude most of the graduates of our Academy.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS.

The Visitors close their report with the following suggestions, as the results of their examinations and conferences, in reference to the

further development of the Naval Academy and the extension of nautical education generally, for the consideration of the Department.

I. Until the pupils of the Naval Academy have gone through the theoretical and practical course of instruction, provided in this institution expressly to qualify them to act as Midshipmen, the Visitors recommend that they be designated as *Naval Cadets*—simply *candidates* for the lowest official rank in the Navy—and that no cadet be rated as midshipman, no matter how well up he may be in his studies, until he has had at least eighteen months of professional practice afloat, towards which time the actual time at sea of each experimental cruise shall be credited.

II. As the most direct blow to the hindrances which practically exclude a large portion of the youth of the country, no matter how strong may be their predilection or great their acquired fitness for the naval service, from even a chance of being admitted to this national school;—as the most effectual preventive of the disappointments now experienced by individuals and families in the failure of many appointees to pass the entrance examination, or to meet even the low requirements of the first year's course;—as the only effectual way of ridding the institution of the low average ability and attainments which characterize the lower sections of every class, and of bringing up the talent and scholarship and conduct of the whole corps to the average of the first two sections;—as a sure guaranty against the early resignation of officers educated at the public expense for a life service in the Navy, and of a progressive and honorable career as long as life and health last;—as a powerful attraction to draw to this department of the public service a fair share of the best talent and loftiest ambition of the youth of the country, and as a stimulus to their best efforts for self and school improvement for this purpose—the Visitors recommend the immediate abandonment of the custom of selecting candidates for admission by individual patronage, in consideration of neighborhood, relationship, or party connection, or the better motives of the poverty or the public service of parents, and that all appointments be hereafter made in consideration of the personal merit of the applicant, ascertained by a public competitive examination, conducted before an impartial tribunal, constituted as shall be prescribed by law. Admission, sought and obtained in this way, will be honorable to the successful candidates, a source of pride to the neighborhood and State from which they come, a reward to the teachers who have prepared them, and a stimulus to the industry and good conduct of their comrades at

home. The classes of the Academy, replenished every year by new recruits, all of whom have sought the service from personal choice and won their place by personal merit founded on natural aptitude and vigor of mind and acquired knowledge, and who regard the diligent improvement of these opportunities of professional study and practice as the true road to honorable promotion hereafter, to be gained by farther industry and devotion—will at once have an average ability and scholarship equal to that now attained by only five or six out of every one hundred, and a large proportion of the cases of discipline, the "dead weights," the reëxaminations, and the failures from inability, distaste, or want of preparatory knowledge, will forever disappear from the records of the Academy.

These suggestions have not the merit of originality nor the objections of novelty. The principle recommended has stood the test of seventy years' trial in France in naval and similar public schools, and is now in successful operation in England, as well as in most of the military schools of Europe. It has been again and again urged by thoughtful friends of this institution and of our other national school at West Point, as the most effectual remedy for the evils complained of. The Academic Board of this Academy, in answer to a request from a committee in 1858 for its opinion on this point, replied:—"The Academic Board has long been of the opinion that the present system of appointing midshipmen without care in their selection, was undermining the very existence of the institution. The records of the Academy show that scarcely more than one-fourth of those admitted graduate. The fault lies with the appointing power, which has not kept the institution supplied with the proper material, and the Board has been powerless in applying a remedy. It has done all in its power by recommending a higher standard of proficiency." The Visitors for 1862, in the Report of their examinations, remark:—"After a careful examination of the subject, the Board has been forced to the conclusion that the selection of candidates has not been made with sufficient reference to the wants of the public service, but has been and continues to be regarded as a portion of the patronage of the members of Congress making the nominations. The evil does not stop here; for in many cases, after they have been appointed without regard to talents or fitness, and have obtained admission to the institution, and subsequently have been found incapable to pursue the studies of the class to which they belong, the influence of the same member of Congress originally nominating them is successfully used to continue them at the institution, in obtaining authority for them to recommence their studies by joining a lower class; thus retaining

those wanting in talents and fitness, to the exclusion of others of suitable qualifications that might be presented. An institution like this, in which the students are educated and supported by the government, ought to have them selected from the highest and most promising youths of the country."*

The same general principle, selection by merit, ascertained by the same general method, competitive examination, conducted on such conditions as Congress shall authorize or prescribe, has been recommended for appointments to the kindred national institution—the Military Academy at West Point—with the view of removing the same hindrances and remedying the same defects in the practical working of that school. That eminent military teacher and administrator, General Thayer, under whom the Academy, notwithstanding many hindrances and defects, attained its highest development, recommended the adoption of this principle at the outset of his administration, after having seen its successful operation in the military schools of France; and he has recently, after the lapse of nearly fifty years, all of them spent in actual experience or observation of the practical results of a different principle, renewed the recommendation in a communication to the Secretary of War. He has, within the present year, declared his belief that the adoption at the start, and the continuous recognition of this principle, the selection of candidates for admission on the ground of personal merit and aptitude for the special purposes of the institution, in appointments to the Military Academy, would have more than doubled its usefulness, would have avoided most of the difficulties of administration which it has encountered, would have prevented the popular prejudices which demagogues and disappointed parents and Congressmen have fostered, and would have gained for it a larger measure of the popular favor.

The Visitors of the Military Academy for 1863, in their Report

* An early friend of this institution, on learning the fact stated in the same Report of 1862, from which the above extract is taken, "that in the course of six years one hundred and twenty-four students were turned back to pursue a second time portions of the academic course," and of this number only six passed the final examination, (thereby costing the country over $300,000 in pay, salaries, and equipment, for absolutely nothing, and at the same time depriving the naval service of an equal number of competent young officers,) writes to a member of this Board as follows:—"I have had the curiosity to question fifty middies, as I happened to meet with them, without selection, and representing different classes in the institution and different States, as to the circumstances of their appointment—and of these fifty, forty were the near relations or sons of political friends of the parties making the nominations, and five were the sons of persons in official stations at Washington, although appointed 'at large,' leaving but five for selection from other sources. In several cases the answers were significant—'My father had to bleed freely for my appointment.' 'My brother worked hard for his election.' 'I had the promise of a cadetship at West Point, but as there was no vacancy that year, I got an appointment here.' 'I am an exchange. Senator ——— got an appointment for Mr. C.'s nephew, and Mr. C. nominated Senator ——— friend's son for the place.' "—[*Ed. of Amer. Journal of Education.*]

to the Secretary of War, go into an extended discussion of the advantages and objections to this principle and mode of making appointments. To this document reference is made as embodying the convictions of this Board as to the probable working of the same principle in admissions to the Naval Academy.

III. In connection with a change in the mode of appointment, the Visitors would commend to the consideration of the Department a revision of the conditions as to the age, bodily vigor, and general knowledge of candidates. The old sytem of training naval officers, by placing boys at the early age of twelve or fourteen years on shipboard in the daily and constant practice of the routine of the ship, when accompanied with the parental oversight of the captain as to conduct, and with regular and progressive instruction in the science and art of his profession, on ship and shore, by the teacher of mathematics and navigation—has produced many capable commanders, out of the larger number who have been ruined for the want of proper supervision and instruction, or grown up into men of mere routine. Some of the brightest names in the records of our own and of the English naval service had no other education or training than this. But these are the exceptions, and their success was as much due to opportunity and original genius, as to their early and continuous ship experience. That system of training officers is, however, everywhere abandoned, and the present aim of every naval power in the world is to seek out young men having a fondness for sea-life, with a generous ambition for naval distinction, with an aptitude for the sciences which qualify and adorn the naval officer, with vigor of body to bear the inevitable exposures of the service, and with a large amount of general knowledge, and then subject them to a special course of professional study and practice in a naval school. For every stage of promotion, additional knowledge as well as professional experience, tested by successive rigid examinations, are required. The experience of this class of schools indicates that those original qualities and acquired qualifications deemed indispensable in candidates for the proper mastery of a thorough course of naval instruction, can not often be found in young men under eighteen years of age.

IV. With an advance in the average age, maturity of mind, and preparatory attainments of the cadets on admission, the Visitors believe a revision and readjustment of the subjects and course of instruction can be advantageously made, which in connection with the new schools of naval construction, and of marine engineering, would greatly extend the range, depth, and practical value of the education of the naval officer, without prolonging the time now

devoted to its acquisition. If the Academy can be relieved of the large amount of merely elementary general education which every graduate of the common schools of the country ought to have received, and which in a few years every aspirant to the privileges of this school would contrive to get, if the law made its acquisition necessary as a preliminary to a competitive examination—then the whole general scientific course could be mastered in two years, with a large amount of military and naval tactics, as well as of practical seamanship in the two summer cruises. At this point the Visitors recommend to the consideration of the Department the establishment of the following departments, or schools, in each of which the course of instruction shall be far more comprehensive and thorough than is now practicable where the branches constitute parts of a single course:—

First.—Of Navigation and Seamanship.

Second.—Of Naval Ordnance and Practical Gunnery.

Third.—Of Hydrography, Marine Surveying, Astronomical Observations, Construction of Charts, &c.

Fourth.—Of Drawing, Naval Designs, Construction of Ships, Naval Machinery, Docks, &c.

Fifth.—Of Steam and Marine Engineering.

Sixth.—Of Naval History and Strategy, International Law—especially of belligerents and neutrals—and the Law of the Sea, Consular Duties, &c.

Seventh.—Of Modern Languages.

Into each of these schools let the cadets be drafted, the choice to be determined by their own predilection or comparative fitness, at the close of the second year, and after completing such number of these courses, not less than four, as may be prescribed, let them have the privilege of an examination.

Each of these departments or schools might be opened to a certain number of candidates, on competitive examination, from each State—no matter where they may have received their education—and permission might be given to officers of any rank to review and extend their knowledge of either of these departments with the more advanced text-books and means of instruction. By this arrangement the service will secure the highest development of any special aptitude, preparation, or experience—and will more frequently get "the right man in the right place."

The importance of these great departments of the naval service, and of special preparation for them, is fully appreciated by the Academic Board, but any attempt to give this preparation to all the members of the present classes, with such unequal and deficient preparatory

knowledge and with such diverse aptitudes for particular branches, would be futile. The attempt to teach as much as is now done, under the circumstances, only produces confused and unsatisfactory results with a large portion of the class. The remedy for this state of things seems to the Visitors to be in:—

1. More thorough preparation, higher average ability, and greater maturity of mind on the part of the cadets.

2. A thorough scientific course up to a certain point, for all the cadets, to occupy two years.

3. The requiring of linguistic training (in one or more modern languages,) only of those who show some aptitude or previous preparation for the same.

4. An option of two or three of the above courses, and a thorough proficiency in those selected before being permitted to pass as midshipman.

5. And finally continuation of study as well as of practice after graduation in the directions for which there is a demonstrated fitness and ability.

V. The Visitors deem it desirable to concentrate in and around the Naval Academy the largest amount and the highest quality of teaching ability, naval experience, and the apparatus and opportunities of practice of every kind connected with the naval service. But they would also commend to the consideration of the Department the encouragement of Naval Institutes, or temporary courses of instruction, at suitable seasons of the year, in some of the great departments of naval education specified in the foregoing classification—for the benefit of officers on furlough, or connected with the National Dockyards and Depositories, especially those in the neighborhood of large collegiate institutions, on the request of a certain number of such officers. Private naval architects and shipmasters might also be invited to attend these Institutes. Something of this kind should be provided, especially if continued study and examination is required by law and regulation at every stage of promotion in the naval service.

VI. The absence of elementary naval schools and of any regular instruction in navigation, the want of nationality and the low condition of the seaman-class generally, prevents any considerable demonstration or recognition of that nautical taste and aptitude for sea-life in the great mass of the population, which ought to be the basis of all special nautical training. To remedy this state of things, to develope and cultivate, where it exists, a desire for a maritime career, to provide at once a supply of intelligent, hardy, and well-trained seamen, mates, and masters, for the national as

well as for the commercial marine, in time of peace as well as in the emergencies of a sudden or a great war, the Visitors recommend the inauguration, under the auspices of the Naval Department, of a system of navigation schools and naval instruction, in addition to and in connection with our present system of naval apprenticeship, commensurate with the demands of the service, the country, and the age. As the basis of this system, they recommend the immediate offer of pecuniary aid to encourage the establishment of a class of navigation schools in all the large seaports of the country, subject to thorough national inspection in order to secure uniformity and efficiency. They do not deem it necessary to consider here the organization, management, and instruction of this class of schools, farther than to present the outline of a system.

1. The schools which they contemplate, are not to be government schools—although they will be aided and inspected by the Naval Department. Their original establishment, buildings, material, equipment, and immediate management will belong to the local Board of Trade or Commerce representing the shipping and commercial interests of the communities in which they are located. Through such Board, the State or municipal authorities, or individuals, can extend pecuniary aid for the original outfit or annual support.

2. The objects aimed at in the internal constitution of the schools and classes, will be thorough instruction in navigation, seamanship, and kindred branches through:—*First*—Evening classes for adults, (seamen, mates, or masters,) who can not attend regularly on account of absence from port or engagements by day, in which the instruction will necessarily be elementary and fragmentary; *Second*—A junior department or division, in which instruction in arithmetic, drawing, commercial geography, and statistics, will be given, as well as in navigation, the use of instruments, calculation of observations, keeping a log-book, journal, &c; *Third*—A senior department, in which a thorough course of mathematics, navigation, nautical astronomy, steam and steam navigation, &c., will be given, with facilities for acquiring one or more of the languages of the nations with which we have large commercial dealings.

3. The extension of any government aid should be based on the condition that suitable buildings and material equipment are furnished and kept in repair and working order by the local Board, or committee of the same, charged with the immediate management of the school; and such aid shall be subject to reduction and withdrawal for the succeeding year on the recommendation of the Department inspectors. For the first year the only condition should be the actual payment, from other sources, of an equal amount for

the annual expense of the school, subject to the disposal of the local Board. For the second and subsequent years, the sum paid by the government shall be appropriated in portions; *First*—a specific sum to the principal teacher and assistants according to the grade of certificated qualification each may hold; *Second*—a specific sum to the managers of each school for the annual expense of the same, according the average daily or evening attendance of the whole number enrolled in each class or division for a specified period of time in each year; *Third*—a specific sum to the managers of each school according to the number of pupils who shall complete certain specified courses of study to the satisfaction of the inspectors upon examination by them; *Fourth*—a specified sum in prizes, in the form of chronometers, sextants, text-books in navigation, &c., to be competed for by all the pupils of each division of a school; *Fifth*—a specified sum in aid of such professional experience as can be secured for the younger members of the school, as is now given to naval apprentices. All payments by the government should be so made as to secure and reward the services of able and faithful teachers, the regular, punctual, and prolonged attendance of pupils to the completion of each course which they enter, and the liberal coöperation of the local municipal authorities and the commercial and shipping portions of the community in which the school is located. Without such coöperation the whole plan will fail. The school need not be free—but let the instruction be good, practical, and cheap, and its possessor be sure of a lucrative employment, and then there will be a demand for it.

And why should not the national government enter upon this or a better devised system of training its own seamen, and advancing its naval and commercial interests? All maritime nations, either directly and exclusively by the central government, or through local boards of trade and commerce, have aimed to protect the lives and property of citizens engaged in commerce and navigation, by providing not only for the erection of light houses, buoys, and other material safeguards, but also by an adequate supply of competent pilots and mariners, duly trained and commissioned. Our own government has recognized its duty in all these respects, and in the recent enormous expansion and peculiar risks of the steam-marine, has established a system of inspection which is intended to reach every engine used for the propulsion of every vessel of any class in all waters subject to national law. Surely the same policy which permits and justifies this interference of the national arm and the application of the national resources to build light-houses, erect buoys, register the names, tonnage, and ownership of vessels;

which commissions pilots, inspects steam-boilers, surveys harbors, makes observations of the stars, the currents of the ocean and the prevalent directions of the winds in different seasons and latitudes; constructs and circulates maps and charts, and does all these things for the protection of commerce and for the use of the navy, will, in behalf of the same great interests, when satisfied that they are jeopardized by present neglect, see and be assured that the masters, mates, and seamen, who have all the precious lives and enormous properties embarked in commerce in their keeping, are properly trained in the science and art of navigation.

The liberal educational policy of the national government which has set apart over one hundred millions of acres of the national domain for educational purposes, which if the right of inspection into its application had been asserted and exercised, would have amounted ere this time to a permanent fund of over five hundred millions of dollars—and which has more recently appropriated over six hundred thousand acres of public land for the establishment of agricultural and scientific schools;—the similar policy of the State governments, that holds all property subject to taxation for the support of schools, and that authorizes the most munificent appropriations for free public schools in all of the large cities, which are also the great seaports of the country—all justify the belief that a system of education for this large class of the community, once fairly entered upon by the national government, will be cheerfully and liberally responded to and sustained.

In England the same necessity which exists in this country—the reluctance of young people in good circumstances, to enter the maritime service—the low state of the professional as well as general education of her seaman-class—the enormous amount of property and the large number of lives directly interested in commerce and navigation—the reliance for properly manning the national vessels in the sudden emergency of war, on the commercial marine—the representative character which mariners bear, of the religion, manners, and civilization generally of the country, to all nations which they visit—the desire for the elevation of this large class of the population in intelligence, morality, and physical well-being, for its own sake as well as for the happiness, safety, and glory of the whole country—has prompted the government to organize a system of nautical education, not only for officers, gunners, architects, shipwrights, engineers, seamen, and boys employed directly in the national service, but for the masters, mates, sailors, and boys in her large commercial marine. Prior to 1853, the whole reliance of that country for the professional education of masters and mates was their reg-

istration after an examination in the mere mechanical knowledge of navigation and seamanship. To obtain this knowledge, reliance was placed on the economic law of supply and demand, and in this case as in others of an intellectual and moral nature, the least demand was made by those in the greatest want. Only here and there, in the great seaport towns, individuals poorly qualified in most instances, opened schools and classes of navigation, in which instruction of the most elementary and mechanical character was given without system, to a very small number, and without supervision or responsibility. In 1853, after the great International Exhibition had demonstrated the superiority of France and other continental nations, in the scientific as well as artistic training of their industrial classes, the English Government constituted a Department of Art and Science to administer a large appropriation (amounting annually to nearly a half-million of dollars) so as to extend encouragement to local institutions of practical science scattered in all the principal centers of population, and acting in every department of industry, all subject to the visits of government inspectors. To this Department of Science and Art was assigned the extension of pecuniary encouragement to, and the inspection of a class of schools which had been instituted by the Mercantile Marine Department of the (governmental) Board of Trade, in connection with local boards of commerce and trade, for the benefit of the navigation interests of the country. These schools in 1863 had increased to eighteen—each in an important seaport—each under the management of a local committee—each having a fair attendance of boys, seamen, mates, and masters, who all paid small fees. The system is still in its infancy, but continues to enjoy the confidence of the government and of the large commercial houses.

Nor is this system of governmental aid and inspection of marine and navigation schools, confined to England. In all the continental states in which the commerce is large enough to require the aid of government in any form for its protection, as well as for the indirect advantage of the navy, this class of schools exists—and in some the national policy in this respect is most comprehensive and thorough. In France, the government in its gigantic efforts within the last twenty-five years to establish a navy which in the number, design, construction, and armament of its vessels, in the scientific and professional knowledge of the officers, and the practical intelligence of her seaman, should be equal to that of any other nation—has included the whole commercial marine in its operations. Encouragement is given to private shipyards, architects, and foundries; and the system of maritime "inscription" or enrollment is

so thorough that there is not a master nor an engineer in the commercial service who has not served at least two years in the national dockyards, foundries, or ships, and enjoyed opportunities of professional study, as well as practice, of the most scientific character.

VII. To give unity, stability, thoroughness, and general efficiency to the inspection and operations of the large system of naval education contemplated in the foregoing suggestions, the Visitors recommend the appointment of a Council or Board of Naval Education, in the constitution of which the great features of such a system should be represented, viz.:—(1.) Experience and success in naval command. (2.) Experience in large commercial and maritime affairs. (3.) Success in naval construction. (4.) Success in the instruction and discipline of educational institutions. (5.) A new infusion every year of the popular element, by the appointment from year to year of one or more public-spirited citizens from different sections of the country to attend the local examinations of applicants for admission, and the annual examinations of the several institutions.

To this Board should be assigned the duty of (1.) Frequent personal inspection and examination at other than stated periods. (2.) The thorough examination by themselves, and in connection with the professors, of the several classes in their daily recitations. (3.) The examination by themselves, or by competent experts, of all candidates for admission, of which as far as practicable, the written answers of the candidates should be preserved, and a written report in detail should be filed away for reference.

The language used in the law under which the present Board of Visitors are appointed—"for the purpose of *witnessing* the examination of the several classes"—if taken literally, would certainly justify the practice adopted by this, and as far as they can learn, by previous Boards. At all events, the constitution of this and previous Boards, composed as it is of members a majority of whom have had no experience in school examinations—who have had no acquaintance with this institution before their present appointment—and who are together for but a short period of time, is very inadequate for any purpose of thorough personal examination. They must be satisfied in the main to receive statements on trust, and to receive and communicate only general impressions. All the duties devolving upon the Board of Visitors as at present organized, could be far more efficiently and successfully performed in connection with the other duties of the Council of Naval Education, here suggested.

VIII. With a programme of studies so extensive as that now laid

down or as herein proposed, in which each study is, or should be arranged with reference to what has gone before, as well as to what is to follow, the professor of each department and the teacher of each branch and section, should be kept closely to his portion, each cadet should master thoroughly every step in the succession, no professor should encroach upon the time of another, no teacher should be allowed to pass his pupils indifferently prepared into the succeeding section or branch. Even if no change be made in the present programme this course is essential to the success of the school, and to secure this an Inspector of Studies should be appointed, who should report frequently to the Academic Board all and every infraction of the programme, so that it may be ascertained whether the cause of failure be in the programme, or the class, or the teacher; and the remedy at once applied. Both the special and general duties of the Commandant preclude the constant and minute inspection referred to, and to the professor of no one department can these duties be properly assigned. While there is a superior executive officer who has in charge the external administration of the affairs of the Academy, there is no corresponding officer, as in the opinion of the Visitors there should be, to preside over the vital matters of instruction and training.

IX. The appointment of professors and assistants is a subject from its importance at all times, and from its immediate bearing upon the welfare of the school, deserving of mature consideration. The efficiency and thoroughness of instruction, the spirit of diligent study and the enthusiastic love of it among the midshipmen, depend to a great degree, upon the fitness of the instructor for his post and the method and manner of teaching which he employs. Though there may be some reason for limiting their appointment to the graduates of the Academy, yet the present course of instruction has by no means in view the training of future teachers, nor has it yet reached its full development. The success and advancement of the institution would seem to require the employment of the best educational talent, and none other, to be obtained wherever it can be found. Whenever any vacancy is to be filled, or new appointments to be made, the Visitors recommend that due notice of the same be given, and that the credentials of all applicants be referred to a competent board, and the applicants themselves whose credentials are satisfactory, be subjected to an open, competitive examination.

X. In conclusion, the Visitors recommend that greater publicity be given to all the documents which set forth the object

and operations of the Naval Academy, the mode and conditions of nominating midshipmen, the name of the person responsible for a nomination, the requisitions and results of each entrance as well as of all annual examinations, with specimens of the questions asked and answers given, so far as the same were written or printed. They would respectfully urge that the Official Register of the Academy, with the above and other information deemed necessary by the Department, be sent not only to every member of Congress, but to the libraries of all principal High Schools, public and private, and all institutions where candidates are prepared, that both teachers and pupils may know what the Department requires as preliminary to the special professional training provided in this Academy for any branch of the naval service of the country, and especially how deplorably deficient a large proportion of the candidates are found to be, on only a moderately strict but impartial examination. To this Register might be appended the official report of the Bureau charged with its supervision, or of any Board of Visitors, or Special Examiners, appointed by the Department.

With the best permanent accommodations and equipment of the Academy that can be made at Annapolis or elsewhere—with schools or courses of scientific and practical instruction for every branch of the service, and for every stage of promotion—with a teaching staff so numerous and so diversified as to secure the advantage of special attainment and qualifications to each branch of study—with entire control of the pupil's time—with hospital accommodations and medical services for the sick—with chaplains for religious observances and the moral culture of all—with regular alternations of physical exercise and intellectual labor, and the stimulus of an honorable distinction before and after graduation—the Visitors think it not unreasonable to expect from an institution so provided for, the highest results, especially as the government has it in its power to select for admission, without regard to the social or political status of parents, from among the entire youth of the country, those who are best fitted by their physical and mental endowment and preliminary education, as well as by their aptitude for special studies and predilection for the naval service, for which those studies are a preparation.

All which is respectfully submitted.

JOHN MARSTON, *Commodore U. S. Navy, President.*

JAMES A. HAMILTON, *New York.* G. D. A. PARKS, *Illinois.*

JOHN RODGERS, *Commodore U. S. Navy.* C. W. PICKERING, *Capt. U. S. Navy.*

CHARLES D. ROBINSON, *Wisconsin.* JOHN W. HARRIS, *Missouri.*

HENRY BARNARD, *Connecticut.*

III. COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION AT WEST POINT.

DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE, MAY 18TH, 1864.

THE Bill making appropriation for the Military Academy being under consideration, Senator Anthony, of R. Island, remarked on the following amendment:

And be it further enacted, That hereafter, in all appointments of cadets to the Military Academy at West Point, the selections for such appointments in the several districts shall be made from the candidates according to their respective merits and qualifications, to be determined under such rules and regulations as the Secretary of War shall from time to time prescribe.

This, Mr. President, is substantially the proposition which I offered at the last session; and although I was not so fortunate as to obtain for it the assent of the Senate, mainly from an apprehension of practical difficulties in carrying out what is admitted to be a desirable reform if it could be effected, yet the general expression of Senators was so much in favor of the principle, and I have been so much strengthened in my views on the subject by subsequent reflection and examination, that I am emboldened to renew it.

I differ entirely from those who are fond of disparaging the Military Academy. It has been of incalculable service to the country; it is the origin and the constant supply of that military science without which mere courage would be constantly foiled, and battles would be but Indian fights on a large scale. Not to speak of the Mexican war, throughout the whole of which West Point shone with conspicuous luster, it is safe to leave the vindication of the Academy to the gallant and able men who have illustrated the annals of the war that is now raging. Nor have its indirect advantages been less marked than its direct. It has kept alive a military spirit, and kept up a good standard of military instruction in the volunteer militia. It furnished, from its graduates who have retired from the Army, scores of men who rushed to the head of our new levies, who organized and instructed them, inspired them with confidence, and led them over many a bloody field to many a glorious victory. Large numbers of our best volunteer officers owe their instruction indirectly to West Point.

To say that no course of military instruction can make a pupil a military genius, can create in him that rare quality that takes in at a glance, almost by intuition, the relative strength of great masses opposed to each other, and that power of combination which can bring an inferior force always in greater number upon the severed portions of a superior force, is very true. To discard military education on that account would be like shutting up the schools and colleges because they can not turn out Miltons and Burkes and Websters. Education does not create, it develops and enlarges and inspires and elevates. It will make the perfect flower, the majestic tree, from the little seed; but it must have the seed. And what I desire is that the Academy at West Point should have the best seed; that its great resources, its careful culture, its scientific appliances, should not be wasted on second-rate material. The Academy has never had a fair chance; the country has not had a fair chance; the boys have

the country. I desire that the Academy shall begin, as it goes on, upon the not had a fair chance. This is what I want them all to have, and especially competitive principle. As all its standing, all its honors, are won by competition, so should the original right to compete for them be won. I would give all the youth of the country a fair chance; and, more desirable than that, I would give the country a fair chance for all its youth. I would have the Academy filled up by those young men who, upon examination by competent judges, should be found most likely to render the best service to the country; to make the best officers; whose qualifications, physical, intellectual, and moral, whose tastes and habits, should seem to best fit them for military life.

But, it is objected, no such examination would be infallible. Of course it would not be. No human judgment is infallible. Our deliberations are not infallible; but therefore shall we not deliberate? The decisions of the Supreme Court are not infallible; therefore shall we abolish the court?

A SENATOR. The Senator from New Hampshire would say yes.

MR. ANTHONY. I know the Senator from New Hampshire [Mr. HALE] would say "Yes." He would abolish both the Academy and the Court, and I can well suppose that the policy which would abolish the one might abolish the other. But although such an examination would not be infallible, it would, if properly organized and properly conducted, accomplish much toward the reform which all admit to be desirable, if it be practicable. It can not be doubted that the young men who would come out best from such a trial would, as a body, be superior to those who are selected upon mere personal preferences, and these preferences generally not for themselves, but for their parents; not for their own qualifications, but as a recognition of the political services of their fathers.

But, again, it was objected when I made this proposition a year ago that it was not equal; because, in giving to any given place of examination, some young men would have further to travel than others! If this objection had not been gravely made by men for whom I have the highest respect I should be tempted to call it puerile. A boy asks the privilege of going a hundred miles to the place of examination, and is told that he can not have it because another boy will have to go two hundred miles, and another but fifty, and it is not equal! The fact that either of them would go five hundred miles on foot for the opportunity of competition is not taken into the account. On the same principle our elections are not equal, for one man must travel further than another to reach the polls. For a boy who can not obtain the means to travel from his home to the place of examination—and there will be very few such of those who would be likely to pass high in the examination—the plan proposed would be no worse, certainly, than the present system; for those who have the means the difference in travel is too small an item to enter into the account.

No plan can be made perfectly equal. Shall we therefore refuse to make a large advance toward equality? Certainly the system which invites a competition from all who are in a condition to avail themselves of it is more equal than that which excludes all competition. But although equality in the advantages of the Academy is very desirable, and although the amendment proposed would be a long step in that direction, it is not for that reason that I urge it. It is not to give all the young men an equal chance for the Academy, it is to give the Academy a chance for the best young men; and although even under this system the best young men will often fail of success, it can not be doubted that many more of them will enter the service than under the present system.

Nor will the advantages of this competition be confined to those who reach the prize for which so many will struggle. An incalculable although an incidental benefit will accrue to the thousands whose youthful hearts will be stirred by an honorable ambition, and who will cultivate their minds by liberal studies and develop their physical power by manly exercises in the struggle upon which the humblest may enter, and in which the proudest can obtain only what he fairly earns. Under the present system the Academy wastes full half its strength upon boys who never ought to be admitted, and whose natural incapacity derives but little benefit from the partial training that they receive there. Under the system proposed, the Academy would exert its influence upon thousands of the brightest and most aspiring boys all over the country, stimulating them to the pursuit of such studies and to the formation of such habits as, if they fail to carry them to West Point, will help to conduct them to usefulness and honor in whatever path of life they may choose.

But, again, we are met with the objection that this proposition is impracticable, that it looks very well on paper, but that it can not be carried into effect. Let us see. It is quite safe to conclude that what has been done can be done, and that what wise and judicious people do, and persist in doing after experiment, is proper to be done. What is the most warlike nation of Europe? What nation of Europe has carried military science to the highest degree? What nation of Europe has the greatest genius for organization? You will say the French. Let us see what is their sytem. I read from the report of the Commission appointed by Congress in 1860 to visit the Military Academy at West Point, and report upon the system of instruction; a commission of which you, Mr. President, [Mr. FOOT,] were a member:

Among the European systems of military education that of France is preëminent. The stimulating principle of competition extends throughout the whole system; it exists in the appointment of the student, in his progress through the preliminary schools, in his transfer to the higher schools, in his promotion to the Army, and in his advancement in his subsequent career. The distinguishing features of the French system are thus described by the British commissioners.

"1. The proportion, founded apparently upon principle, which officers educated in military schools are made to bear to those promoted for service from the ranks. 2. The mature age at which military education begins. 3. The system of thorough competition on which it is founded. 4. The extensive State assistance afforded to successful candidates for entrance into military schools whenever their circumstances require it. * * * * * *

Admission to the military schools of France can only be gained through a public competitive examination by those who have received the degree of bachelor of science from the lycées or public schools, and from the orphan school of La Flèche.

A powerful influence has thus been exercised upon the character of education in France. The importance of certain studies has been gradually reduced, while those of a scientific character, entering more directly into the pursuits of life, have been constantly elevated.

The two great elementary military schools are the School of St. Cyr and the Polytechnic School. These, as well as the other military schools, are under the charge of the Minister of War, with whom the authorities of the schools are in direct communication. Commissions in the infantry, cavalry, and marines can only be obtained by service in the ranks of the army, or by passing successfully through the School of St. Cyr, admission to which is gained by the competitive examination already referred to."

Again, the Commission say, speaking of the School of St. Cyr:

The admission is by competitive examination, open to all youths, French by birth or by naturalization, who, on the 1st of January preceding their candidature,

were not less than sixteen and not more than twenty years old. To this examination are also admitted soldiers in the ranks between twenty and twenty-five years, who, at the date of its commencement, have been actually in service in their regiments for two years.

A board of examiners passes through France once every year, and examines all who present themselves having the prescribed qualifications.

A list of such candidates as are found eligible for admission to St. Cyr is submitted to the Minister of War. The number of vacancies has already been determined, and the candidates admitted are taken in the order of merit.

Twenty-seven, or sometimes a greater number, are annually, at the close of their second year of study, placed in competition with twenty-five candidates from the second lieutenants belonging to the army, if so many are forthcoming, for admission to the Staff-School at Paris. This advantage is one object which serves as a stimulus to exertion, the permission being given according to rank in the classification by order of merit.

In regard to the Polytechnic School, the Commission say:

Admission to the School is, and has been since its first commencement in 1794, obtained by competition in a general examination, held yearly, and open to all. Every French youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty (or if in the army up to the age of twenty-five) may offer himself as a candidate.

This is the system which was organized by Carnot and adopted and extended by Napoleon. Under this system the French army has attained its perfection of organization, its high discipline, its science, its dash, and its efficiency.

But not the French alone have adopted the competitive system. In England, all whose traditions are aristocratical, where promotion in the army has so long been made by patronage and by purchase, the sturdy common sense of the nation has pushed away the obstructions that have blocked up the avenues to the army, and have opened them to merit, come from what quarter it may. In the commencement of the Crimean war, the English people were shocked at the evident inferiority of their army to the French. Their officers did not know how to take care of their men, or how to fight them. And although in the end British pluck and British persistence vindicated themselves, as they always have and always will, it was not till thousands of lives had been sacrificed that might have been saved under a better system. No French officer would have permitted that memorable charge at Balaklava, which was as remarkable for the stupidity that ordered it as for the valor that executed it, and which has been sung in verses nearly as bad as the generalship which they celebrate. After the war, the English Government, with the practical good sense which usually distinguishes it, came, without difficulty, to the conclusion that merit was better than family in officering the army, and that it was more desirable to put its epaulets upon the shoulder of those who could take care of the men and lead them properly than upon those who could trace their descent to the Conqueror, or whose uncles could return members of Parliament. Accordingly, the Royal Military Academy, which had been filled, as ours is, by patronage, was thrown open to public competition. On this subject I quote from the very interesting and valuable report of the Visitors of the Military Academy in 1863:

The same principle was applied to appointments and promotion in the new regiments called for by the exigencies of the great war in which England found herself engaged.

Subjects, time, and place of examination were officially made known throughout the kingdom, and commissions to conduct the examinations were appointed, composed of men of good common sense, military officers, and eminent practical teachers and educators. The results, as stated in a debate in Parliament five years later, on extending this principle to all public schools, and all appoint-

ments and promotions in every department of the public service, were as follows: in the competitive examinations for admission to the Royal Military Academy candidates from all classes of society appeared—sons of merchants, attorneys, clergymen, mechanics, and noblemen, and among the successful competitors every class was represented. Among the number was the son of a mechanic in the arsenal at Woolwich, and the son of an earl who was at that time a cabinet minister—the graduates of national schools, and the students of Eton, and other great public schools.

On this point Mr. Edward Chadwick, in a report before the National Social Science Association, at Cambridge in 1862, says:

"Out of an average three hundred patronage-appointed cadets at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, for officers of engineers and the artillery, during the five years preceding the adoption of the principle of open competition for admission to the Academy, there were fifty who were, after long and indulgent trial and with a due regard to influential parents and patrons, dismissed for hopeless incapacity for the service of those scientific corps. During the five subsequent years, which have been years of the open-competition principle, there has not been one dismissed for incapacity. Moreover, the general standard of capacity has been advanced. An eminent professor of this university, who has taught as well under the patronage as under the competitive system at that Academy, declares that the quality of mind of the average of the cadets has been improved by the competition, so much so that he considers that the present average quality of the mind of cadets there, though the sorts of attainment are different, has been brought up to the average of the first-class men of this (Cambridge) university, which of itself is a great gain. Another result, the opposite to that which was confidently predicted by the opponents to the principle, has been that the average physical power or bodily strength, instead of being diminished, is advanced beyond the average of their predecessors."

I read this also from the same report:

Another result of immense importance to the educational interests of Great Britain has followed the introduction of these open competitive examinations for appointments to the military and naval schools, to the East India service, as well as to fill vacancies in the principal clerkships in the war, admiralty, ordnance, and home departments of the Government. A stimulus of the most healthy and powerful kind, worth more than millions of pecuniary endowment, has been given to all the great schools of the country, including the universities of England, Scotland, and Ireland. As soon as it was known that candidates, graduates of Trinity College, Dublin, had succeeded over competitors from Oxford and Edinburg in obtaining valuable appointments in the East India service, the professors in the latter universities began to look to their laurels. As soon as it was known to the master of any important school that some of his leading pupils might compete in these examinations, and that his own reputation as a teacher depended in a measure on the success or failure of these pupils, he had a new motive to impart the most vigorous and thorough training.

Such has been the result in France and in England. We are not without examples at home. The competitive system has been tried in repeated instances here in the appointments both to the Military and the Naval Academy. Several Representatives in Congress, with a conscientious sense of the responsibility resting upon them, have given their patronage to the result of general competition, among them the gentleman who so ably represented, in the last Congress, the district in which I live. The results have been most satisfactory. Here, again, I will quote from the report of the Board of Visitors for 1863:

The principle itself, of selection by merit, either in the mode of public examination or of careful and searching inquiry by competent and impartial educators designated for this purpose by the parties to whom custom, and not law, had assigned the grave responsibility of nominating candidates, has been voluntarily applied in several Congressional districts. Not a cadet known to have been thus selected and appointed has ever broken down from want of vigor of body or mind, or failed to reach and maintain an honorable position on the merit-roll

of the Academy; and to this careful selection by those who felt the responsibility of the privilege accorded to them is the country indebted for its most eminent and useful officers.

The same report makes some observations on another point:

To the objection that selection by public competitive examination will involve expense, we reply that any expense which will do away with the prejudices against the Academy, which the present system of patronage has done so much directly and indirectly to evoke and foster, and which will, at the same time, exclude incompetent and secure the services of vigorous, talented, well-trained officers for every arm of the service, will be well incurred. But in our opinion there will be no more expense in selecting and educating a given number of cadets on this plan than on the present. The two thousand cadets who were appointed by patronage and failed to graduate, cost the Government, directly and indirectly, each year a much larger sum than it would have taken to have excluded them in advance from the institution by competitive examination and filling their places by better men; and their exclusion by substituting better material would have been an incalculable gain to the Academy, facilitating its discipline, increasing the value of its instruction, and giving to the Army a larger number of competent officers.

Even under the despotic government of Austria the competitive system has been adopted for the higher places, and it has been adopted by Prussia and Italy. In Austria every subject can claim admission into the military schools on payment of the cost of his instruction; and all the appointments to the staff are on the competitive system. On this subject I read from the work upon Military Education and Schools, by Hon. Henry Barnard, who stands in the very front rank of the great educators, and who gives to the competitive system the weight of a name which alone should incline us strongly in its favor:

The yearly examinations, the manner in which the marks of the monthly examinations tell on the final one, and the careful classification of the pupils in the order of merit, reminded us of the system of the Polytechnic more than any other school we have seen. * * * *

The arrangements for the general staff-school require more remark.

In our report upon Austrian schools we have specially noticed this school as remarkable for its thorough and open competitive character from first to last, and its very sensible plan of study. Admission to it is by competition, open to officers of all arms. The pupils are not unduly overburdened with work; perhaps there is even room for one or two more subjects of importance; but what is done seems to be done thoroughly. The officers are carefully ranked on leaving the school, according as the abilities they have displayed may be considered a criterion of their fitness for employment on the general staff; and in this order they enter the staff corps. The consequence is that every officer knows distinctly, from the time that he first competes for admission until his final examination on leaving, that the order in which he will enter the staff depends entirely on his own exertions and success at the school. It seemed to us that this open competition produced a spirit of confidence and energy in the students as great, if not greater, than any we met with elsewhere.

I quote from the same work in regard to the military education in Sardinia:

Admission into the artillery and engineer school may be considered the reward of the most distinguished pupils of the *Accademia Militare*, who, after spending their last year in that institution in the study of the higher mathematics, chemistry, and architectural drawing, are transferred for the completion of their education to the school of the artillery and engineers.

The staff-school, the formation of which dates from 1850, is chiefly frequented by officers of the infantry and cavalry, who must be below the age of twenty-eight years upon their entrance. It is carried on upon the competitive final examination, the ablest entering the staff corps in that order.

In the same work Mr. Barnard characterizes the Staff-School at Vienna:

The most striking features in the system of this school, both at the entrance

and throughout the course, are, that it is distinctly competitive, that it admits very young officers, and that while the work is considerable, the subjects for study are not numerous. In these three points it differs considerably from the Prussian staff-school, in which the students are generally older, and the principle of comp etition is not so fully carried out. In the Austrian school the studentsare pl aced, on entering, in the order which their entrance examination has just fixed. They are examined once a month during their stay. On leaving the school their respective places are again determined, and they have a claim for appointments in the staff corps in the exact order in which they were placed on leaving the school. In Belgium the competitive system is fully adopted.

The following testimony is from a report on the progress of the principle of competitive examination for admission into the public service, read before Section F. Economic Science and Statistics of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Leeds, September 27, 1858, by Edward Chadwick:

Mr. Canon Mosely attests that the "qualifications of the whole" body of competitive candidates appeared to rise above the general "level of the education of the country." It is stated in evidence before the commissioners for inquiring into the means of improving the sanitary condition of the army, that this was most decidedly so of the whole body of competing candidates for medical appointments in the East India service. Mr. Canon Mosely concludes his report on the last year's experience in the following terms: "With reference to the general scope and tendency of competitive examinations, I may perhaps be permitted the observation, that the consciousness which success in such examinations brings with it in early life of a power to act resolutely on a determinate plan, and to achieve a difficult success, contributes more than the consciousness of talent to the formation of a manly and honorable character, and to success on whatever career a man may enter."

The report of the last Board of Visitors at West Point, from which I have read, I believe has not yet been printed by Congress; I have read from a pamphlet copy of it printed in the Journal of Education. The Board was composed, as it usually is, of men of high character and ability. After a full and laborious examination of the whole subject, they unanimously and earnestly recommend the adoption of the competitive system.

If the appointments to fill and maintain the corps at this maximum [four hundred] can be selected out of the many American youths ambitious to serve their country in the Army, on the plan of an open competitive examination in the several States, the Visitors believe that ninety out of every one hundred thus appointed will go through the whole course with honor, and the average ability, scholarship, and good conduct of the whole corps will equal that now reached by the first ten of each class.

With such experience of other nations, with such examples at home, I submit that we may safely in this republican country give our young men the privileges that are conceded in imperial France and in aristocratic England; that we may safely place competition against patronage, and give to modest merit a chance with pretentious imbecility. I would go somewhat further in the competitive system. I would not have the Army or the Navy officered exclusively by the graduates of the national Academies. If any young man, at his own expense, and by his own study and aptitude for the profession, has fitted himself for a command in either, let the competition be open to him equally with those who have been instructed at the public expense, and let the epaulets rest on the shoulders that are most worthy to wear them. But I do not propose to follow the subject to this extent at present. I shall be abundantly content if the Senate will adopt the competitive system, which has worked so well in other countries and so well here as far as it has been tried, in the Military Academy.

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OPINIONS OF COL. THAYER AND OTHERS.

On the recommendations of the Board of Visitors as to the conditions of admission to the United States Military Academy at West Point.

EXTRACT from a letter of COL. SYLVANUS THAYER, Superintendent of the United States Military Academy, from 1816 to 1831.

"The Extracts from the Report of the Visitors at West Point, for 1863, I have read with the highest satisfaction, not to say admiration. The subject of the admission of Cadets, their number, age, attainments, and mode of appointment, is discussed in the most complete and able manner, *ne laissant rien a desirer*, as far as I can see. I am naturally the more pleased from finding my own views so perfectly reflected in many important particulars. The only difference I notice is the small addition to my standard of attainment for admission. I not only agree to that, but would raise the standard as high as Congress would be willing to adopt. The higher the standard, the more perfect will be the test of capacity. The subject, as you may well suppose, is not a new one with me. More than forty years ago I made my first effort to have the mode of appointment by nomination, done away with, and admission by open competition adopted. My last effort before the late one, was made in 1858, while I was in command of the Corps of Engineers, during the absence of Gen. Totten. At the same time, I recommended a higher standard of attainment, a Board of Improvement, and some of the other changes comprised in my "Propositions," but with little expectation, however, that my solitary voice would be heeded. After long despairing, I am now encouraged and cheered. Admission by competitive examination, open to all, may not be attained as soon as we wish, but come it must at no d stant day. Let every future Board of Visitors recall the attention of the Government to your excellent Report; no new arguments are needed, and let all the publications devoted to the cause of education, agitate the question unceasingly.

We have been favored with the perusal of the "Propositions, referred to in Col. Thayer's letter, and submitted by him to the Secretary of War, in 1863, with "Suggestions for the Improvement of the United States Military Academy." So far as the Visitors go, their views, and those of Col. Thayer, are almost identical, but Col. Thayer's communication to the Secretary includes many other suggestions relating to the instruction, discipline, and administration of the institution, which we hope will be adopted by the Secretary, and embodied in the Regulations.

In addition to the modifications suggested by Col. Thayer, we should like to see the theoretical course at West Point reduced to two years; and Special Courses, or Schools of Application and Practice

established for the Engineer, Artillery, Cavalry, and Infantry service, open only to those who should show natural aptitude, and the proper amount of acquired knowledge, whether graduates of the scientific course of West Point, or any State scientific or classical school, in a competitive examination. In each of these courses or schools, there should be a graduation, and promotion, in the particular service, according to merit. Our whole system of military instruction should terminate in a STAFF SCHOOL, open only to those who, in addition to the knowledge required for graduation in at least two of the above special courses, should have had at least three years actual experience in service. While members of the Staff School, these candidates for the Staff Corps, should, if called for by the State authorities, assist without compensation, in conducting Military Encampments of the Officers of the State Militia, like those held every year in Switzerland, and corresponding to what is known in this country to Teacher's Institutes. The graduates of the Staff School, should constitute the Staff Corps, from which all vacancies in the higher offices of the Regular Army should be filled, and all appointments to new regiments be made.

EXTRACT from a letter of GEN. H. K. OLIVER.

I have read with the utmost care, the Extract from the Report of the Board of Examiners of the Military Academy at West Point, for the year 1863, and most heartily concur in the views therein set forth, and especially in that portion of it, which recommends a competitive examination of candidates for admission. In all its relations it is right. In fact it stands out prominently as the only proper mode of admittance.

My intimate acquaintance with the Academy, having attended the examination in 1846, by invitation, and again in 1847, as Secretary of the Board of Visitors for that year, enables me to speak with reasonable authority. These visits afforded me opportunities, which I improved to the utmost, and most minutely, to become intimately well informed of the effect of the prevailing method of selection, and of its practical results upon character and scholarship after admission, as well as to know, with what degree of fidelity, the institution was answering the intent of its founding, and the just expectation of the country; and I was then satisfied, and subsequent observation has confirmed me in my opinion, that whatever of deficiency prevailed, was traceable to the method of admission. Faithful teachers and faithful teaching will achieve great results, but they can not make good, incompetent natural endowments, nor infuse vigor and life into sluggish natures. I sincerely hope that the Government will feel the force of your views, and comply with your most commendable recommendations.

RESOLUTION adopted by the American Institute of Instruction at the Annual Meeting in August, 1863.

WHEREAS, the security and honor of the whole country require in the military and naval service the right sort of men with the right sort of knowledge and training; *and whereas*, the military and naval schools established to impart this knowledge and training will fail in their objects, unless young men are selected as students, of the right age, with suitable preparatory knowledge, with vigor of body, and aptitude of mind, for the special studies of such schools; *and whereas*, the mode of determining the qualifications and selecting the students, may be made to test the thoroughness of the elementary education given in the several States, therefor

Resolved, That the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction are authorized and instructed to memorialize the Congress of the United States, to revise the terms and mode of admission to the National Military and Naval Schools, so as to invite young men of the right spirit, and with vigor and aptitude of mind for mathematical and military studies, who aspire to serve their country in the military and naval service, to compete in open trial before intelligent and impartial examiners in each State, without fear or favor, without reference to the wealth, or poverty, or occupation, or political opinions of their parents or guardians, for such admission, and that in all cases the order of admission shall be according to the personal merits and fitness of the candidate."

EXTRACT from letter of Prof. Monroe, St. John's College, Fordham, N. Y.

I rejoice that some one has taken hold of this subject at last. It needs only to be understood to be adopted; for I can not see from what quarter any opposition to it can arise. You rightly observe that "all the educational institutions of the several States" are interested in this mode of appointment. Great Britain, France, and many of the Continental States admit to their military schools the most competent young men who present themselves, and the method is found to be as economical as it is equitable. Long years of *winnowing* is saved to the Government; for the subjects who present themselves are, of course, the most capable. For several years I was a witness of the beneficial effects produced on youth in France by the stimulation of their energies in order to undergo an examination for admission into the military or naval schools. Our present mode of appointment appears to be an anomaly; for while monarchies find it expedient to adopt a less exclusive mode of sustaining their military organizations, we still cling to one founded on patronage and prerogative. Many of our young men in different colleges and educational institutions have a taste and vocation to the military profession, and have an equal right to compete for a place in the only fields where such a taste can be gratified—viz., in the army and navy. These careers should then be open to them. There is danger and want of policy in suppressing the legitimate aspirations of young men in a nation which is, say what we can, passionately fond of military glory.

EXTRACT from the Report of the Board of Visitors of the U. S. Military Academy at West Point for 1864.

The main features of the Report of the Visitors for 1863 we most cordially approve, especially its recommendations of competitive examination, and raising the age and qualifications of candidates for admission. The only student who obtained his appointment through competitive examination (introduced into his district by the member of Congress upon whose recommendation he was appointed from the common schools * of New York) graduated at the head of his class this year.

* The successful candidate, out of twenty competitors, was a member of the Free Academy of the city of New York, and stood in scholarship about the middle of his class.

IV. LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CONVENTION

THE NATIONAL SOCIETY OF SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND ARTS.

After the establishment of the University of the city of New York, and before a plan for its organization had been definitely determined upon, the friends of the institution authorized a committee, composed of Rev. Dr. J. M. Matthews, Rev. Dr. J. M. Wainwright, Hon. Albert Gallatin and John Delafield, Esq., members of the Council of the University, to call in its behalf a convention of literary and scientific gentlemen for conference on the general interests of letters and liberal education.

The convention was called accordingly, and met, on the 20th of October, 1830, in the Common Council Chamber of the city of New York. It was quite numerously attended, and included many that were then or have since become prominent among the literary men of the country. Pres. Joshua Bates, of Middlebury College, Vt., was called to the chair, the Hon. Albert Gallatin and Walter Bowne, Mayor of the city, were appointed Vice-Presidents, John Delafield was appointed Secretary, and Rev. W. C. Woodbridge, of Hartford, Assistant Secretary. The Rev. Dr. J. M. Matthews, afterwards Chancellor of the University, stated the object of the meeting to be to obtain the assistance of those present in devising and maturing a system of college government and instruction adapted to the state and wants of the country and that should enable the University of the city of New York to maintain an honorable competition with the universities of Europe. The sessions of the convention, which were continued through four days, were occupied with addresses and discussions upon topics intimately connected with this object, and the published Journal of its proceedings * gives a full report of the views of the following gentlemen as there expressed.

Mr. George Bancroft, of Northampton, Mass., upon "*A Plan for the University of New York.*"

Pres. J. Bates, upon "*The Appointment of Professors.*"

Dr. Cooley, upon "*The Universities of Cambridge, Oxford and Dublin.*"

Mr. H. E. Dwight, of New Haven, upon "*The Education of Classical Teachers.*"

* Journal and Proceedings, &c., New York, 1830.

Hon. ALBERT GALLATIN, upon "*A Plan for the University, with an Account of the College of Geneva.*"

Rev. T. H. GALLAUDET, of Hartford, upon "*Advancement and Classification of Students,*" and upon "*The possibility of a Liberal Education without the Study of the Classics.*"

Mr. F. HASLER, of New York, upon "*College and University Discipline.*"

Prof. KEATING, of Philadelphia, upon "*The Appointment of Professors,*" and upon "*The Advancement and Classification of Students.*"

Dr. FRANCIS LIEBER, of Boston, upon "*The Organization, Courses of Study, and Discipline of the German Universities,*" upon "*The Advancement and Classification of Students,*" upon "*College Degrees,*" and upon "*The possibility of a Liberal Education without the Study of the Classics.*"

Lieut. D. H. MAHAN, of West Point, upon "*The Defects of the present System of Education.*"

Lieut. O. M. MITCHELL, of West Point, upon "*The Plan of the 'Associate Society of West Point.'* "

Prof. G. A. PERDICARI, of Washington College, Hartford, Ct., upon "*The Teaching and Pronunciation of the Greek Language.*"

Prof. J. A. PIZARRO, St. Mary's College, Balt., upon "*The History of Education in Spain.*"

Prof. E. ROBINSON, of Andover, Mass., Report upon "*The Study and Pronunciation of the Greek Language.*"

Prof. B. SILLIMAN, of Yale College, upon "*The Organization of Yale College,*" upon "*Sectional Feeling in that Institution,*" and upon "*College Discipline.*"

Mr. JARED SPARKS, of Boston, upon "*The Organization of Harvard College.*

Prof. H. VETHAKE, of Princeton, N. J., upon "*The existing Method of Collegiate Education in the United States.*"

Rev. J. M. WAINWRIGHT, of New York, upon "*College Discipline.*"

Dr. J. L. WOLF, of Hamburg, upon "*The Organization of a University.*"

Rev. W. C. WOODBRIDGE, of Hartford, upon "*The Gradation of Students by Age and Advancement,*" upon "*Fellenberg and his System of Classification,*" and upon "*Parental Discipline in Colleges.*"

Mr. T. D. WOOLSEY, of New York, upon "*The Colleges of France.*"

Papers were read upon "The proper mode of conducting instruction in Universities," and upon a "Plan of a University to be adapted to the wants of the poorer classes," and an address was delivered by Col. S. L. Knapp, of Boston, upon the establishment of a "*National University.*"

Remarks were also made upon "The Classification of Students," "Class Emulation," and the question of "Open Classes," by Mr. F. Hasler, Col. S. L. Knapp, Pres. James Marsh, of Vermont University, Mr. J. Sparks, Rev. Walter Colton, of Brooklyn, Prof. Adrian, of the University of Penn., Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, Pres. J. P. Cushing, of Hampden Sydney College, Va., and Pres. Bates—upon "Discipline in Colleges," by Mr. F. Hasler, Rev. Dr. Andrew Yates, of Chittenango, N. Y., Rev. Mr. Woodbridge, Pres. Bates, Prof. Adrian, Prof. Dewey, of Pittsfield, Mass., Prof. Silliman, Pres.

Marsh, Rev. Dr. Emory, of New York, Mr. J. Sparks, Rev. Dr. B. H. Rice, of Virginia, and Prof. Patton, of Princeton, N. J.—upon "The importance of the Study of the Classics in a Liberal Education," by Pres. Marsh, Prof. Patton, and Pres. R. S. Mason, of Geneva College, N. Y.—upon "The relative value of diplomas in this country and Europe," by Mr. Jared Sparks—and in relation to the "Greek Language," by Mr. T. D. Woolsey.

The subject of the establishment of a "National Literary and Scientific Society" was also introduced and referred to a committee composed of the Hon. E. P. Livingston, Hon. A. Gallatin, Prof. Silliman, Dr. J. M. Matthews, and Dr. S. H. Cox, who reported favorably and recommended the appointment of a committee of seven to prepare and report a plan accordingly. Dr. J. M. Matthews, Hon. A. Gallatin, Mr. J. Sparks, Dr. F. Lieber, Pres. Marsh, Mr. H. E. Dwight and Mr. J. Delafield were appointed such committee. Committees were also appointed to report upon "University and College Discipline," "Professorships of Legislation and Jurisprudence," and other educational topics, and arrangements were made for holding another convention in New York, in 1831.

The Second Meeting of the convention was opened Nov. 1, 1831, in the City Hall at New York. The Hon. J. Q. Adams was chosen President, the Hon. A. Gallatin and Hon. E. P. Livingston, Vice-Presidents, J. Delafield, Esq., Secretary, and Prof. B. F. Joslin, of Union College, Assistant Secretary.

The report of the committee upon the formation of a "National Society" gave rise to a discussion upon the limitation of the number of its members, upon its title, &c.,* and after the adoption of the following constitution, it was decided to originate the Society by the appointment of a committee of fifteen, who should have power to elect eighty-five other persons, and that these, or so many of them as should assemble at the call of the committee, should constitute the first meeting of the Society.

I. The Society shall be denominated The National Society of Science, Literature and Arts.

II. The number of members residing within the United States shall not exceed two hundred; and the number of foreign members shall not exceed twenty in other parts of America, and twenty in other foreign countries.

III. The members shall be divided into four classes according to the following

* A plan was submitted by Lieut. R. Park, of West Point, in behalf of the *American Association for the Promotion of Science, Literature, and the Arts*, which was deemed too extensive and of too questionable practicability to be adopted. This Association had been but recently formed, and embraced at that time nine, or more, "Associate Societies," of which the earliest had been formed at West Point in May, 1829. Others were located at Schenectady, Utica, Rochester, New York city, Oxford, O., Nashville and Gallatin, Tenn., and Jewett City, Conn. Their existence was brief.

arrangement, viz.:—First, the Mathematical and Physical Sciences—Second, the Moral and Intellectual Sciences—Third, Literature—Fourth, the Fine Arts.

IV. The funds shall be raised by donations, subscriptions, and such assessments as the Society shall, from time to time, agree upon.

V. The officers of the Society shall be a President, four Vice-Presidents, one from each of the four classes, a Treasurer, a Recording Secretary, and an Assistant Recording Secretary, and two Corresponding Secretaries, one for domestic and the other for foreign correspondence.

VI. The Society shall be governed by such regulations and by-laws as may be agreed upon by a majority of its members, at any annual meeting.

VII. The Constitution may be altered at any annual meeting of the Society, by a majority of two-thirds of the members present; provided, however, that no alteration shall be made in the Constitution, unless such alteration shall have been proposed at the preceding annual meeting.

The following were appointed the committee of fifteen:—Hon. J. Q. Adams, Rev. Dr. W. Fisk, Prof. H. Vethake, Rev. Dr. Macauley, Prof. A. Alexander, Mr. H. E. Dwight, Prof. B. F. Joslin, Hon. E. P. Livingston, Hon. Chancellor Walworth, Hon. Albert Gallatin, Rev. Dr. Wainwright, Rev. Dr. Matthews, John Delafield, Esq., Rev. Dr. J. Milnor and Mr. Halsey.

Mr. H. E. Dwight reported upon the subject of the establishment of colleges in Greece under American patronage, introduced by a letter from Rev. J. King on a proposed institution at Athens.

Rev. W. C. Woodbridge read a report upon the propriety of studying the Bible as a classic; a committee was appointed to prepare a plan for a course of Biblical instruction in academies and colleges, composed of Rev. Dr. Milnor, Rev. Dr. A. Maclay, Prof. Vethake, Rev. W. C. Woodbridge and Prof T. D. Woolsey.

Dr. F. Lieber also reported upon "Professorships of History."

Pres. Fisk, Prof. Vethake and Prof. Woolsey were appointed to correspond upon the subject of Greek pronunciation.

Mr. Lleras, of Colombia, read a communication upon the state of education in that republic and in Venezuela, and Dr. S. H. Cox, Mr. Theodore Dwight, Jr., and Prof. Woolsey were appointed to open a correspondence with the States of South America.

An essay was also read upon "Jacotot's System of Instruction."

The appointment of the next annual meeting of the convention was referred to a committee of arrangements, and the convention thereupon adjourned.

Thus was initiated the "National Society of Science, Literature and Arts," and here for some reasons unexplained, the movement seems to have ended. Years went by and it was left for other men, in other times, to establish more successfully the national institutions of science and art which now exist. The proceedings of the second convention are briefly given in the "Annals of Education" for 1831, but no record has been met with of any subsequent action.

V. NAVAL AND NAVIGATION SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND.

(Continued from December number for 1864, page 640.)

III. Navigation Schools.

The class of schools of which we commenced a description in our last number, which for the sake of presenting the subject entire, we repeat in this, is intended primarily for the special scientific and practical instruction in navigation and seamanship of masters and mates in the merchant service, but is calculated indirectly and largely to increase the efficiency and safety of the military marine in the time of war. For both purposes the English government is engaged in directing and aiding a system of instruction, which in its organization, management and methods is well worthy of the study of our naval authorities, and of the navigation interests of the mercantile community.

In 1853 the English Government constituted the Department of Science and Art, to extend a system of encouragement to local institutions of Practical Science, similar to that commenced a few years before in the Department of Practical Art, the two Departments being united in the course of the same year, and the united Department being administered at first by the Board of Trade, and in 1856, by the Education Department. To this Department of Science and Art, was assigned in 1853 the general management of a class of schools which had been instituted or aided by the Mercantile Marine Department of the Board of Trade, for the benefit of the navigation interests of the country. Instruction in navigation was given in the seaports by private teachers, without system, and to a very small number of those who should be well grounded in the principles of the art before being entrusted with the responsibilities of command, involving the lives and property of others. To introduce system, to give permanent employment to a larger number of well-qualified teachers of navigation, to elevate and improve the attainments and character of British masters, mates and seamen, and indirectly but largely increase the supply for the Royal Navy in time of war, the Government had determined to encourage local effort in establishing Nautical Schools. With this view the Marine Department of the Board of Trade had established two schools prior to 1853, one in London, and the other in Liverpool; and an arrangement had been made with the Admiralty, by which it was believed five or six pupil-teachers, who had completed their term of instruction at the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, would be able to attend the scientific courses in the Metropolitan Schools of Science and Art, and be instructed in those sciences which would better fit them to become masters of schools of navigation in the

of the Academy; and to this careful selection by those who felt the responsibility of the privilege accorded to them is the country indebted for its most eminent and useful officers.

The same report makes some observations on another point:

To the objection that selection by public competitive examination will involve expense, we reply that any expense which will do away with the prejudices against the Academy, which the present system of patronage has done so much directly and indirectly to evoke and foster, and which will, at the same time, exclude incompetent and secure the services of vigorous, talented, well-trained officers for every arm of the service, will be well incurred. But in our opinion there will be no more expense in selecting and educating a given number of cadets on this plan than on the present. The two thousand cadets who were appointed by patronage and failed to graduate, cost the Government, directly and indirectly, each year a much larger sum than it would have taken to have excluded them in advance from the institution by competitive examination and filling their places by better men; and their exclusion by substituting better material would have been an incalculable gain to the Academy, facilitating its discipline, increasing the value of its instruction, and giving to the Army a larger number of competent officers.

Even under the despotic government of Austria the competitive system has been adopted for the higher places, and it has been adopted by Prussia and Italy. In Austria every subject can claim admission into the military schools on payment of the cost of his instruction; and all the appointments to the staff are on the competitive system. On this subject I read from the work upon Military Education and Schools, by Hon. Henry Barnard, who stands in the very front rank of the great educators, and who gives to the competitive system the weight of a name which alone should incline us strongly in its favor:

The yearly examinations, the manner in which the marks of the monthly examinations tell on the final one, and the careful classification of the pupils in the order of merit, reminded us of the system of the Polytechnic more than any other school we have seen. * * * *

The arrangements for the general staff-school require more remark.

In our report upon Austrian schools we have specially noticed this school as remarkable for its thorough and open competitive character from first to last, and its very sensible plan of study. Admission to it is by competition, open to officers of all arms. The pupils are not unduly overburdened with work; perhaps there is even room for one or two more subjects of importance; but what is done seems to be done thoroughly. The officers are carefully ranked on leaving the school, according as the abilities they have displayed may be considered a criterion of their fitness for employment on the general staff; and in this order they enter the staff corps. The consequence is that every officer knows distinctly, from the time that he first competes for admission until his final examination on leaving, that the order in which he will enter the staff depends entirely on his own exertions and success at the school. It seemed to us that this open competition produced a spirit of confidence and energy in the students as great, if not greater, than any we met with elsewhere.

I quote from the same work in regard to the military education in Sardinia:

Admission into the artillery and engineer school may be considered the reward of the most distinguished pupils of the *Accademia Militare*, who, after spending their last year in that institution in the study of the higher mathematics, chemistry, and architectural drawing, are transferred for the completion of their education to the school of the artillery and engineers.

The staff-school, the formation of which dates from 1850, is chiefly frequented by officers of the infantry and cavalry, who must be below the age of twenty-eight years upon their entrance. It is carried on upon the competitive final examination, the ablest entering the staff corps in that order.

In the same work Mr. Barnard characterizes the Staff-School at Vienna:

The most striking features in the system of this school, both at the entrance

and throughout the course, are, that it is distinctly competitive, that it admits very young officers, and that while the work is considerable, the subjects for study are not numerous. In these three points it differs considerably from the Prussian staff-school, in which the students are generally older, and the principle of competition is not so fully carried out. In the Austrian school the students are placed, on entering, in the order which their entrance examination has just fixed. They are examined once a month during their stay. On leaving the school their respective places are again determined, and they have a claim for appointments in the staff corps in the exact order in which they were placed on leaving the school. In Belgium the competitive system is fully adopted.

The following testimony is from a report on the progress of the principle of competitive examination for admission into the public service, read before Section F. Economic Science and Statistics of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Leeds, September 27, 1858, by Edward Chadwick:

Mr. Canon Mosely attests that the "qualifications of the whole" body of competitive candidates appeared to rise above the general "level of the education of the country." It is stated in evidence before the commissioners for inquiring into the means of improving the sanitary condition of the army, that this was most decidedly so of the whole body of competing candidates for medical appointments in the East India service. Mr. Canon Mosely concludes his report on the last year's experience in the following terms: "With reference to the general scope and tendency of competitive examinations, I may perhaps be permitted the observation, that the consciousness which success in such examinations brings with it in early life of a power to act resolutely on a determinate plan, and to achieve a difficult success, contributes more than the consciousness of talent to the formation of a manly and honorable character, and to success on whatever career a man may enter."

The report of the last Board of Visitors at West Point, from which I have read, I believe has not yet been printed by Congress; I have read from a pamphlet copy of it printed in the Journal of Education. The Board was composed, as it usually is, of men of high character and ability. After a full and laborious examination of the whole subject, they unanimously and earnestly recommend the adoption of the competitive system.

If the appointments to fill and maintain the corps at this maximum [four hundred] can be selected out of the many American youths ambitious to serve their country in the Army, on the plan of an open competitive examination in the several States, the Visitors believe that ninety out of every one hundred thus appointed will go through the whole course with honor, and the average ability, scholarship, and good conduct of the whole corps will equal that now reached by the first ten of each class.

With such experience of other nations, with such examples at home, I submit that we may safely in this republican country give our young men the privileges that are conceded in imperial France and in aristocratic England; that we may safely place competition against patronage, and give to modest merit a chance with pretentious imbecility. I would go somewhat further in the competitive system. I would not have the Army or the Navy officered exclusively by the graduates of the national Academies. If any young man, at his own expense, and by his own study and aptitude for the profession, has fitted himself for a command in either, let the competition be open to him equally with those who have been instructed at the public expense, and let the epaulets rest on the shoulders that are most worthy to wear them. But I do not propose to follow the subject to this extent at present. I shall be abundantly content if the Senate will adopt the competitive system, which has worked so well in other countries and so well here as far as it has been tried, in the Military Academy.

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the classes at a Navigation school would challenge comparison for general knowledge and information with any profession in England, and would soon cease to be the last resort of those idle, troublesome fellows, expelled from the agricultural class and the various trades, who are too old, too ignorant, or too profligate ever to make even indifferent sailors.

Having stated what appears to me to be the ground that may be beneficially covered by a network of navigation schools, I will proceed to state what, in my opinion, are the means by which a Navigation School may be rendered most attractive and efficient.

I. *A Navigation School assisted by the Government should offer sound Instruction especially adapted to the Nautical Profession.*

Although at first sight the number of subjects named hereafter may appear large, and the education of too high an order, these objections will vanish when it is remembered that lads are not acceptable on board merchant ships until they are 15-16, because they are of little use, and give trouble; and yet, as has been already stated, if not attracted to the Navigation schools at the age of 12–13, and induced to remain in attendance on the classes until they are 15–16, they will be drawn into some other profession.

The course of instruction which is adopted must necessarily therefore be sufficiently comprehensive to extend over *three* years, and at the same time continue to the last to be specially adapted to conduce towards the boy's success in his profession.

The subjects which appear to be suitable for boys destined for the nautical profession and retained under instruction from 12–13 to 15–16 are as follows:—

* (1.) Reading and writing from dictation.
* (2.) First four rules of arithmetic.
* (3.) Grammar.
(4.) A complete course of arithmetic.
(5.) Algebra to quadratics, with application.
(6.) Geometry, Books of Euclid, I. II. III., and a few propositions in Book IV.
(7.) Trigonometry, plane and spherical.
(8.) Navigation.
(9.) Nautical astronomy, including lunar double alt. and Sumner's method.
(10.) Practical use of the instruments used at sea.
(11.) Geography, descriptive, } especially as regards products, climates, &c.
(12.) Geography, physical, }
(13.) Chart drawing; surveying.
(14.) Free-hand drawing.
* (15.) History, particularly Scripture History and English History.
* (16.) Letter writing; book-keeping.
(17.) Mechanics and steam-engine.
(18.) Magnetism and electricity in relation to ships.
(19.) Laws of storms and tides.
(20.) Knowledge of the code of signals.
(21.) Mercantile laws and usages, as far as is necessary for the master of a merchant ship.
(22.) Gymnastics.

The above subjects are taught in the Navigation School at Hull.

II. *A Navigation School should provide a good supply of apparatus, viz., instruments, books, maps, slates, &c. without any charge to the pupils.*

In Ireland, where a class of Navigation Schools has been established as part of the system of National Education, a very liberal supply of sextants, books, maps, &c., is given to each school by the Board of Education.

III. *A Navigation School aided by Government should offer valuable prizes in the shape of exhibitions, instruments, books, &c.*

The great difficulty we have to contend with is the reluctance on the part of some parents, the inability on the part of others, to maintain their children during the three years' course.

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* The boys are expected to be proficient in these subjects before entry, and they need only be taken up in the way of review.

Exhibitions and prize-schemes should therefore be established on the most liberal footing.

Prizes had been awarded by the Department in only two or three instances before my tour of visits.

(*a.*) I beg to suggest that *prizes* be awarded, when deserved, at all the schools every half year.

The prizes to consist of sextants, watches, instruments, books, &c. The future prizes to be placed at the commencement of the half-year under the charge of the local committee, to be exposed in the schoolroom in a case with a glass lid or cover. (The half-yearly value of the prizes to be about 15*l.*); the prizes to be fairly and openly competed for.

A very limited number of sextants should be given away, not more than one each half-year among all the schools. The prizes not to be awarded except on the most satisfactory proof of the lad's sufficient proficiency.

(*b.*) I beg to suggest that *exhibitions* be established on the following scale, viz., at the rate of twelve for a school giving instruction to 100 boys, or one to every eight boys, and be awarded at all the schools every half-year.

The boys after the examination to be divided in the following manner:—

The First Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for a period under 6 months.

The Second Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 6, and under 12 months.

The Third Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 12, and under 18 months.

The Fourth Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 18, and under 24 months.

The Fifth Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 24, and under 30 months.

The Sixth Division to consist of all the boys who had attended the Classes for 30, and under 36 months.

Exhibitions at the rate of one in eight boys to be given to the most successful boys in each group.

The exhibitions for the 1st and 2nd Divisions to consist of remission of fee and a donation of 6*d.* a week for ensuing half-year.

The exhibitions for the 3rd and 4th Divisions to consist of remission of fee, and a donation of 1*s.* a week for ensuing half-year.

The exhibitions for the 5th and 6th Divisions to consist of remission of fee, and a donation of 2*s.* a week for ensuing half-year.

This part of my proposal is elastic, the value of the exhibitions can be increased if the principle is approved of, and the number may be extended even to offering an exhibition to every boy attaining a certain degree of proficiency in the studies of the school.

The chief merits of this plan are (1,) that as all the exhibitions are thrown open for competition every half-year, the spirit of emulation is constantly kept alive; it is notorious that the attainment of an exhibition or scholarship which will be held throughout a student's career is often the prelude to idleness. (2.) That exhibitions are placed within the reach of the youngest boys.

The examination to decide on the exhibitions and prizes should take place at the end of the half-year. The questions to be sent from the Department, and the answers to be sealed up in the presence of the boys, and sent to the Department on the evening of the examination day. The prizes and exhibitions should be awarded at the commencement of the next half-year. As the examination should not, if possible, extend over more than one day, the Department might make a selection from among the subjects taught. As the inspector can not be present, one or more of the local committee should remain in the school during each examination.

The result of each examination should be allowed to be published in the local papers; competition will then be created among the various schools at the seaport, who will view with great interest the position of their boys on the examination list.

Capt. Ryder suggests (1.) that each boy who holds an exhibition or

gains prizes, have the fact engrossed on a *vellum certificate*, and receive a *medal* or *badge*. (2.) That all graduates of the school who bring a good character from their captain or shipowner, for one year after leaving the school, receive one pound from the funds of the school. (3.) That shipowners and the Admiralty be induced to look first to the Navigation schools for their apprentices, and that they open to competition among the prize boys of the schools, any choice places in their gift. (4.) That officers and masters of ships, and public men interested in nautical matters be invited to visit the schools.

IV. *A Navigation School should provide an ample Educational Staff, whose income should be sufficient, and a certain portion of it fixed, and whose energies should be mainly directed to the Education of the Boys.*

The educational staff, as a general rule, is very insufficient, owing to a school for adults having been generally established in connexion with the school for boys.* This course was adopted chiefly for economical reasons, it being intended that the large fees from the adult class should pay the greater proportion of the expense of the school; but it has resulted in the boys' school being most seriously injured, as follows, without any compensating advantages.

The boys who pay fees, from 6*d.* to 1*s.* a week, are constantly and unavoidably neglected by the head master, whose interest it is to attend to the adults who pay from 5*s.* to 7*s.* a week; and even if superior to that motive, the head master can not leave the adults for more than a few minutes at a time, because, and not unnaturally, they insist on his remaining with them.

A peculiarity in the mode of paying masters of Navigation Schools is in increasing his compensation from all other sources by the payment by the Department of an amount represented by the certificate he may hold of his success in passing examination in certain group of subjects. The scheme is as follows:

Group I. Mathematics necessary to the study of navigation,	£5
Group II. General navigation and nautical astronomy,	15
Group III. Adjustment and skillful handling of instruments,	5
Group IV. Physical geography,	10
Group V. Physics, mechanics, marine steam engine,	10
Group VI. Chemistry,	5
Group VII. Natural history,	5
Group VIII. Chart, freehand, and mechanical drawing,	5
	£50

This group payment is a well devised scheme to induce masters to improve themselves, and is applicable to teachers of every grade, and if rightly applied, will operate as a constant stimulus to professional improvement. But in the case of this class of schools, where there are pupils on a varying scale of direct payment to the teacher, the teacher will be tempted to give his particular attention to the pupils who pay best. This can be counteracted by making the masters' payment depend on the proficiency of the scholars.

To obtain and keep the services of the zealous, intelligent, and very superior men who alone are fit to take charge of navigation schools, I believe a superannuation allowance would be at the same time the greatest and most economical inducement.

I beg to suggest that at 60 years of age a navigation master be allowed to

* The school at Hull is the only navigation school at which no adults are received.

retire with his group money as an allowance. This would be a great inducement to remain in connection with the Department, and to pass in as many groups as possible.

The direct inducement which I propose to give to the educational staff to bring their schools up to the highest state of efficiency is a payment in money, and I have been induced to propose this from the sense of the paramount advantage derived in any undertaking from making it the direct pecuniary interest of agents to act up to their instructions.

I propose that every head master, every assistant master and every pupil-teacher employed in teaching the boys shall receive a sum of money in addition to his fixed salary and his group money to depend on and vary with the success of the school at the half-yearly examinations. The mode by which I propose to estimate the amount of this payment will be detailed further on, when I speak of inspections.

It consists of a sliding scale of payment, so contrived that it is the direct pecuniary interest of the head master to bring all his boys up to the highest state of proficiency, and also the direct pecuniary interest of all the educational staff to refrain from forcing on the clever boys, if by so doing they neglect the duller boys, and also to refrain from drawing the boys into the upper and more showy subjects to the neglect of the lower, more elementary, but more important subjects, errors commonly and but too justly ascribed to schoolmasters in their endeavors to give to their schools the appearance of high efficiency.

I am aware that the sliding scale of payment which I propose has the demerit of novelty.

The Committee of Council, fully alive to the advantage of a sliding scale, have provided that, in the primary schools, the master's pay shall depend on and vary with the school pence and the capitation grant (a grant which is made to depend upon the attendance of the children,) in the art schools it is made to depend on and vary with the number of prizes won by the students.

The disadvantage of the former plan is that the sliding scale, being made to depend upon mere numerical attendance, both particular proficiency and general proficiency are ignored.

The disadvantage of the latter is that it is made the master's direct pecuniary interest to force on the clever boys to the neglect of the dull boys, while general proficiency and numerical attendance are ignored.

There are doubtless good reasons why these very different plans should have been adopted in primary and art schools.

In the scheme of varying payment which I propose for navigation schools, both the general proficiency of the school and the numerical attendance of the scholars are made the measures of the masters' emoluments, while the proficiency of individual boys is fostered by prizes and exhibitions.

V. *The Masters of Navigation Schools should display great intelligence and aptitude for teaching, should be intimately acquainted with the best methods of instruction, and be zealous in the performance of their duties.*

As a general rule I have found the masters intelligent and apt to teach. The majority of them have enjoyed the privilege of an education at Greenwich under Mr. Riddle.

It is important that the masters should be drawn from some normal school; Greenwich school appears admirably adapted for such purpose. To draw a large supply of masters from that school, and retain their services, the position of the masters in a pecuniary point of view must in my opinion be improved. But if this is done an engagement should be entered into to remain as a navigation schoolmaster for a certain time, and after that, not to leave without at least two months' warning.

The position of assistants should be open to all persons whose credentials previously received, as to good character, proficiency in all the subjects taught in this class of schools, and required for the place, are satisfactory. The examination should be public, and the results published. The vacancies among the head masters should be open to competition among the assistant masters.

VII. *The Navigation Schools should be judiciously situated, have large airy rooms, a good playground, gymnastic poles, and a lending library.*

Exercise at gymnastics is most beneficial to the boys' health, and confirms them in their choice of the naval profession. The lads when they go to sea are much more useful aloft if they have acquired the agility and daring which can alone be gained by gymnastic exercises.

One of the causes of the rapid deterioration in the physique of our sailors is the diminution of work aloft consequent on the introduction of steam.

VIII. *The Fees in a Navigation School should be carefully adjusted.*

A carefully adjusted scheme of fees from 1*d.* to 1*s.* per week will not exclude by their amount any poor boys whom we might wish to admit, or to repel by their insignificance those parents who would attach no value to that which cost them little.

The larger portion of the fees, after deducting a certain fixed sum, or a certain definite proportion of them for local expenses, will stand in the school accounts to the credit of the local committee, and will be expended from time to time, with the consent of the Department, in paying the masters' salaries, the boys' exhibition money, &c.

In some seaports, where there is a pertinacious disinclination on the part of the parents of the boys to their going to sea, I have suggested to the committee the undertaking to return all or a portion of the school fees of any boy who has passed above a certain mark, on proof being received that the boy has sailed. This would in many cases act both on parent and child as a great inducement to the boy to go to sea.

IX. *Navigation Schools should be periodically inspected and reported on.*

Inspection to be really valuable should be thorough. Now the subjects in which it is proposed that the boys shall be taught at the Navigation School are very numerous, and none of them should, if possible, be allowed to escape the notice of the inspector and the test of examination.

I propose that there shall be two examinations every half-year, (1) the general examination, to measure the progress and proficiency of the navigation classes, and the payment to be made to the educational staff; (2) the special competitive examination for prizes and exhibitions. The first will be held in the course of the half-year, in the presence of the inspector and master, the answers, however, to be looked over and valued in London. The second will be held at the close of the half-year, in the presence of the master and of one or more of the local committee. It will be entirely a written examination, the questions to be sent from the Department. To prevent any suspicion of unfair treatment, the examination books should, after each examination, be sealed up at the close of the day, in the presence of the boys, and sent to London. The prizes and prize studentships will be awarded when the school meets again, at the commencement of the next half-year. The answers will be valued in London, by a person appointed for that special purpose. The practice I have adopted is to give full numbers for an accurate answer, half numbers for an answer which, though inaccurate, shows intelligence.

The inspector who conducts the general examination should have with him various papers of questions of equal value on each subject, so as to diminish the possibility of information as to the questions set at the examination being communicated from one school to the other. The masters have a direct pecuniary interest in preventing any information being sent to the other schools.

I suggest that the general examination, to ascertain the amount of examination money, be conducted in the following manner:

The school to be arranged previous to the arrival of the inspector, in five classes, each class separated from the other as far as the arrangements of the school will admit, and the five classes to be so composed as to be about equal, both in average and collective intelligence. No difficulty is experienced by the masters in doing this.

The number won by the boys in a class in a particular subject will be added together and divided by the number of boys in the class; the result will be the mean number for that subject for that class, and the classes being equal, that number will be a measure of the proficiency of the school in that subject. The

number of boys in the school multiplied by the sum of the mean numbers will be the number which will determine the sum of money to be apportioned to that school, and divided among the educational staff.

I propose that a sum of money, at the discretion of the Department, be divided* once a year among the schools, in the ratio of the numbers obtained as above, and that notice be given to them to that effect at the commencement of each year, naming the total sum. I propose that the sum won by the school should be divided among the educational staff in the following proportions:—

Head Master 5 shares, but total not to exceed . . .	£30
Assistant Masters, each 2 shares, but total not to exceed . .	12
Pupil-Teachers, each 1 share, but total not to exceed . .	6

As every progressive step made by the dullest boy who attends the classes tells on the gross number, and through it on the pecuniary gain of the whole staff, the staff will have no temptation to neglect, but on the contrary, every inducement to push on the dull boys, and as proficiency in the lower subjects counts as much as proficiency in the highest the common fault of neglecting the low subjects would evidently diminish very much the profits of the staff, and will therefore be prevented.

I consider this sliding scale would be preferable to paying the master a certain sum for every prize won in the school, which is a direct temptation and inducement to him to select from time to time the most promising boys, and put them under pressure to make prize boys of them, neglecting the dull boys of the same standing who can not on that system of reward be productive of any benefit. The collateral advantages of this system.

(1.) It becomes the direct personal interest of the staff to retain the boys as long as possible, in order that at each examination, there shall be as many boys as possible well advanced in all the subjects.

(2.) That it becomes their direct personal interest, to select from among the boys presenting themselves for entry, those that are most advanced in the elementary subjects, so that their backwardness may diminish the mean numbers as little as possible.

(3.) That it becomes their direct personal interest to work the school with as few masters as possible, as thereby their individual gains are larger.

(4.) Competition is created among the Navigation schools and their educational staffs.. The result of each examination should be allowed to be published in the local papers, and the results of the examinations at all the Navigation schools should be made known at each school.

(5.) The inspector and the Department can see at a glance whether any Navigation school has neglected any subject. The masters could not evade the rigor of this test by any artifice.

(6.) The boys will be induced generally to enter into the spirit of the competition, which will have the best effect. A few only can win the prizes and exhibitions, but all can contribute by their exertions to the comparative success of their school.

(7.) The local committee and the neighborhood would enter into the spirit of the struggle.

X. *A distinctive Dress or Badge is calculated to have a very good effect on the Navigation Schools.*

The Trinity Board at Hull gives to 80 boys in the Navigation school a neat uniform (blue jacket, blue and white trousers, and blue cap.) This has a capital effect on the boys, gives them an esprit d'ecole, and acts as a restraint on their conduct outside the schools.

XI. *In Navigation Schools great pains should be taken to ensure punctual attendance on the part of the boys.*

I beg to suggest that the best form of registers be provided, and that it be made imperative that the register be strictly kept in all the schools, and that the following practice be universal instead of partial, viz., that any boy arriving late is expected to produce a written authority from the master of his school or his parents for his absence. Prizes for good attendance have been found very useful in primary schools. I beg to suggest one prize of 10*s.*, three of 5*s.*, and five of 1*s.* every half-year, or 3*l.* a year in a school of 100 boys.

* I prefer this to any other plan, because the stimulus to exertion will be greater.

Capt. Ryder recommends that the daily record of attendance, proficiency, and conduct, be posted up on the walls of the school every week, month, half-year, and year, as well as the names of all prize boys.

Capt. Ryder goes into detail of the estimates of receipts and payments, and makes the education of each boy cost the Department about £2 10*s.* per boy per annum. The whole expense of teaching and clothing at the Hull School averages a little more than £6 per boy per annum

Obstacles to the success of Navigation Schools.

The principal obstacles in the way of success, in addition to the inefficiency of the schools, the absence of prizes, &c., are three in number.

It is my firm belief that if the Department assist liberally the establishment of navigation schools, placing them on a proper footing, and stating that they are schools established for the sole purpose of giving special instruction in scientific subjects to boys intended for the Royal Navy and the Commercial Marine, these three obstacles will gradually vanish. They are,—

(I.) *A disinclination on the part of shipowners to enter boys.*

In reply to my inquiries the owners of steamers stated, "We don't want boys, who eat as much as men, are of very little use, and give a great deal of trouble; we want men.

Steam having superseded the use of sails to a great extent, boys, who in sailing vessels are invaluable for light work aloft, are not valued in steamers.

Many of the sailors, so-called, that we find in steamers differ very little from landsmen, except that they are not sea-sick, they can take the wheel and pull an oar. To all the valuable qualities of a true sailor, which were developed by and almost entirely due to his work aloft, viz., agility, readiness of resource, indifference to all danger that may be escaped by bodily activity, as distinct from that solid courage which all Englishmen possess, the steam sailor can lay slight claim.

In the Royal Navy we want the superior class of sailors, and if possible those alone. The partial substitution of steam for sails, while it has injured our own sailors has, in the same way and for the same reason, injured those in the commercial marine, on whose aid and support we may at any time be thrown for a supply of seamen.

It is most important, therefore, that every impulse should be given to keep up in the commercial navy both the quantity and quality of the seamen; it is much to be regretted, therefore, that the same disinclination to take boys, although fortunately in a less degree, exists among the shipowners of sailing vessels.

Lads enter on board merchant ships, some as apprentices, some as boys.

In the employment of the larger shipowners apprenticeships are highly valued.* The proportion of apprentices to tonnage at present is about 1 to 200 tons. Before the repeal of the navigation laws, it was by Act of Parliament 1 to every 100 tons.

The disinclination to enter boys will, I believe, gradually vanish when the attention of the shipowners, as a body, is attracted to the valuable class of boys who will attend the Navigation schools, for they will be induced to reflect, that although at first sight it may appear to be more economical to enter no boys or

* The value attached to an apprenticeship varies largely with the employs, the port, &c. Mr. Green charges 180*l.* for a four-years' apprenticeship as a midshipman. Large shipowners at Glasgow and elsewhere pay 35*l.* for a similar term to a common apprentice

apprentices, or a very few only, and those at very low wages,* yet that by so doing they are contributing indirectly, but yet surely and certainly, to the deterioration of the whole class of seamen, and to the ultimate injury of the ship-owning interest.

(II.) *A disinclination on the part of parents to send their boys to sea.*

While sailors are, what they frequently are at present, not the most moral or respectable members of society, it is probable and natural that many parents would regret their sons' choice of the sea as a profession.

But as sailors and masters improve by the aid of navigation schools, where they will be instructed in their youth, and are received in sailors' homes at every port where their vessels touch, this class of objections will gradually become obsolete; and the profession of the sailor will take its proper place by that of the high skilled mechanic as one of the noblest professions a working man's son can adopt, being also one of the highest paid; 3*l.* and 4*l.* a month besides victuals and medical attendance being the not uncommon emoluments of a merchant seaman. Moreover, the profession of a sailor, if he is a steady man, may be rendered both healthy, improving, and entertaining, and acts most beneficially on the character and temper. Steam and science are rapidly diminishing the longest voyages, and long periods of absence, one of the not unnatural objections of a parent, are becoming the exception instead of the rule.

The wish to go to sea is implanted by Providence, doubtless for the wisest purposes, in large numbers of the boys of these islands, frequently in those who have never seen the sea. Those parents, ministers, or schoolmasters who take upon themselves to thwart this natural and laudable wish, going the length, as they frequently do, of treating the boy's desire as an evidence of a vagabond and depraved taste, may be fairly charged with the responsibility of the boy's immoral and depraved life, if such unfortunately is the result of his going to sea, for his naval career is probably commenced by running away from home, and he thus severs all those domestic ties which conduce so much to the preservation of purity of life and manners.

This conduct on the part of parents should be deprecated by every one who has the best interests of his country at heart.

Every respectable and well conducted boy who desires to go to sea should be aided and assisted to do so, and this course should be systematically adopted throughout the country. The Government, by the support of navigation schools, show their opinion on this subject. It only remains for the schools to be put on a proper and liberal footing, worthy of the Government and of the object which they are intended to serve. When this is done, the profession of the sailor will be rescued in the minds of the lower classes from all the odium which at present surrounds it.

(III.) *A disinclination on the part of boys to go to sea.*

This disinclination exists in some ports and not in others; it will decrease wherever it exists when Navigation schools, established on a liberal footing, offering the inducements I have suggested, are placed near the docks in every seaport town of any size or importance. It is advisable that the schools should be so placed that the boys can when out of the school play about among the shipping, witness and long to imitate the evolutions of the sailors aloft, &c.

* Owing to the low rate of wages referred to, large numbers of apprentices run away every year, after they have served a portion of their time.

An attractive evening class will have to be established for the instruction of boys who have to work for their livelihood during the day, and for apprentices. I have proposed that half the fees be given to the educational staff, to insure their taking a direct pecuniary interest in the evening class.

In concluding this report, I wish to state, that I am fully impressed with the great benefit that the establishment of good Navigation schools would confer directly on the Royal Navy, the Commercial Marine, and the country; and that I see every reason for believing, that if the schools are placed on a proper footing, the classes will be largely attended, and the schools will answer every purpose for which they are established. The limited number of thirty Navigation schools, which I have suggested, should be forthwith established, although only professing to assist in providing a sufficient supply of educated young men to fill up the vacancies among the masters and mates, yet can not fail to tell with the best effect on the commercial marine generally. For these well-educated lads, who, after leaving the Navigation schools, have to struggle through that large body, the seamen of the commercial marine, before they can win the prizes of their profession, must raise the tone of the class through which they pass.

If the thirty schools are established, and after two or three years are evidently working well, it will be worth considering whether more schools of a simpler and less expensive character should not be established to educate a sufficient number of lads fully to supply the vacancies in the seamen class.

The alterations I have proposed in the mode of payment of the educational staff are those upon which I desire to lay the most stress; they have had but one object in view, the making it the personal pecuniary interest of each member of the staff to devote himself zealously to those duties, and to no other, which the Department wishes him to perform. In individual cases, we might appeal to higher motives than these, but in dealing with a body of men, however upright and conscientious, I am firmly convinced that there is no safer course than the appealing to the lower motive in aid of the higher.

The plan of payment of the teachers of navigation schools generally, presented by Capt. Ryder, was substantially adopted by the Department having charge of this class of schools, in 1860, but was changed to the following Minute in April, 1863, on the recommendation of Capt. Donnelly, for the purpose of restricting the efforts of the teacher, and the industry of the scholars, to the subject of Mathematics, Navigation, Nautical Astronomy, and the Use of Instruments, leaving general elementary studies to be mastered in other schools.

AID TO NAVIGATION SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.

I. Payments will be made by the Department only on the results of instruction in the following subjects:

1. Mathematics, including such portions of Algebra, Geometry, Mensuration, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Logarithms, as far as necessary for understanding Navigation and Nautical Astronomy.
2. General Navigation.
3. Nautical Astronomy.
4. Physical Geography.
5. Steam and the Steam Engine.

II. The payments will be made to those teachers only who have taken certificates as qualified to teach the above studies.

III. Examination for teachers will be held annually in November, in South

Kingston, Dublin and Edinburgh. The traveling expenses of candidates if successful will be paid.

IV. Examination for students will be held

(1.) The adults, seamen and others, at the seaport towns where local Marine Boards are formed and are prepared to undertake them from year to year.

(2.) The youths, in inland towns once a year, the examination forming part of the general May Science examination will be held simultaneously all over the kingdom where local committees are formed to conduct them, the examination papers being supplied by the Science and Art Department.

V. The successful candidate will be classed as passed with honorable mention, third, second, and first grade certificates. In the three last, a certificate will be given to that effect. The grades of success may be improved at any future examination.

VI. The teacher will receive one, two, three, four or five pounds, according to the class of success of his pupils, on the condition that the pupil, if a boy, shall have received forty lessons, at least, from the teacher, and then goes to sea, and if an adult at sea, then he shall have received twenty lessons, at least.

VII. Should the pupil have been previously examined and payment made on his account, the twenty or forty lessons, as the case may be, must have been given since that examination, and the payment to the teacher will be the difference between that sum previously paid and the amount found due on the grade then taken.

VIII. A local committee must in all cases be formed, and from them the teacher will receive the necessary vouchers.

IX. The sum above fixed can only be considered experimental, and may be altered from year to year.

School of Naval Architecture.

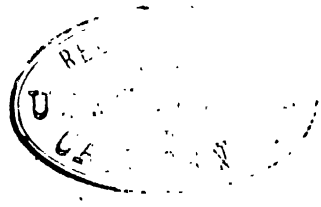
By a recent order of the Admiralty, and in connection with the Science and Art Department of the Board of Education, a new Royal School of Naval Architecture has been established and opened at South Kensington, London, for the instruction, not only of pupils for the Royal Dockyards, and of officers of the Royal Navy, but for the use of naval architects, and ship builders in wood and iron, marine engineers, inspectors of works, shipwrights, and the public generally.

Lectures, illustrated by experiments, models, &c., will be given in the winter months, on the properties of materials, used in the construction of ships, and class instruction in drawing, design, and the sciences connected with the arts employed in naval architecture, by teachers whose qualifications have been tested by an open examination.

Government scholarships, Queen's medals and prizes will be established and be open to competition.

Fees will be charged in addition to the Government appropriation.

We have in various ways, but mainly by personal conference, called the attention of members of the School Boards in our seaports to the importance of recognizing the demands of our national and commercial marine, in the location, outfit and studies of one or more of their public schools. The subject has a National importance, and for the reasons and in the plan developed by Capt. Ryder, in foregoing extracts, for England, we hope the suggestions made by the Visitors of the U. S. Naval Academy, in the Report of their Examination for 1864, for some immediate and liberal action on the part of Congress, and the Navy Department, will receive a more than passing attention.



VI. ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

REPORT OF HER MAJESTY'S COMMISSIONERS.*

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS of England which have long held a prominent position as places of instruction for the wealthier classes—the Colleges of Eton and Winchester, and the Schools of Westminster, the Charterhouse, St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury —from their position at the head of the whole system of Public School Education in England, and from the interest which attaches to them as old, well-known, and influential institutions, are worthy of yet farther notice than has already been given them in preceding volumes of this Journal. We deem no apology needed for calling the attention of our readers to the exceedingly interesting and valuable report, recently published, of the Queen's Commissioners, appointed to inquire into their condition and management.

This Board of Commissioners consisted of the Earls of Clarendon and Derby, Lord Lyttleton, Hon. Edward Turner Boyd Twistleton, Sir Stafford Henry Northcote, William Hepworth Thomson, and Henry Hatford Vaughan, appointed July 18th, 1861, to inquire "into the nature and application of the Endowments, Funds, and Revenues belonging to or received by" the above-named Colleges and Schools, "and into the administration and management of the said Colleges, &c., and into the system and course of studies respectively pursued therein, as well as into the methods, subjects, and extent of the instruction given to the Students," and the fullest authority was given to make such examination of persons and records as might seem necessary. In the course of the investigation, which has not wanted in thoroughness and diligence, series of questions were proposed to the several Governing Bodies and to the Head Masters of the schools, examinations were made of persons who were, as well as of others who had previously been officially connected with them, and also of many who had been educated at them. The Professors and Tutors of the Universities, and the Council of Military Education, (in respect of the Military Schools of Woolwich, &c.,) were inquired of, in order to learn the results of the instruction given and the standing of the graduates. The investigation was also extended to the more recently founded Colleges of Marlborough, Cheltenham, and Wellington,

* Report of Her Majesty's Commissioners appointed to inquire into the Revenues and Management of certain Colleges, Schools, and Foundations, and the Studies pursued and Instruction given therein; with an Appendix and Evidence. Vol. I. Report. London, 1864.

and to the City of London and King's College Schools, with their improved systems of instruction, and advantage was taken of a favorable opportunity which presented itself, to inquire into the Higher Schools of Prussia.

In this first volume of the resulting report are embodied the conclusions at which the Commissioners arrived respecting the nine schools, collectively as well as separately. In Part II. of the report, the schools are treated of separately and a succinct statement is made of all the material facts that the inquiry had elicited in regard to each. Part I., on the other hand, contains the broader results of the inquiry, the conclusions which they suggest, and the views of the Commissioners respecting the government and management of these great English schools, and the education they afford, pointing out defects in the range and methods of that education, and suggesting enlargements and improvements.

From this first portion of the report we propose to make such abstracts and extracts as will express these views and suggestions of the Commissioners, and give a correct idea of the general character and condition of these schools which have become especially identified with what in England is commonly called Public School Education. For Public School Education, as it exists in England and in England alone, has grown up chiefly within their walls, and has been propagated from them; and though now surrounded by younger institutions of a like character, and of great and increasing importance, they are still in common estimation its acknowledged types, as they have for several generations been its principal centers. The opinions and suggestions of the Commissioners, moreover, no less than many of the facts which they disclose, give curious evidence of the strong power which traditions and custom have over the English mind, and how tenderly they treat and uphold opinions and laws that have the hoar of antiquity upon them. Yet their opinions, as here expressed upon various educational problems which have been long tested in these schools, are of great importance to ourselves in relation to our own present and future higher institutions of learning.

Origin.—These schools were founded within a period ranging from the close of the 14th century to the beginning of the 17th century—from the reign of Richard II. to that of James I. Winchester, the earliest, founded by William of Wykeham, is older by several generations than the Reformation, and the revival of classical literature in England. Eton, half a century later, was modeled after Winchester; each was an integral part of a great collegiate establishment, in which the promotion of learning was the principal aim, but not the founder's sole purpose. Westminster is one of the many grammar schools attached to cathedral and collegiate churches for which provision was made after the dissolution of the monasteries; but it acquired, or perhaps inherited from the ancient school of the monastery of St. Peter, an importance peculiarly its own. Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, Merchant Taylors' and St. Paul's were among the multitude of schools founded in the 16th century, either by grants of

church lands from the Crown, or by private persons, with endowments sufficient to afford the best education known in that day, to so many day scholars as the neighborhood was likely to supply or the reputation of a competent teacher to attract.

Endowment.—The endowments of these schools vary very much and bear no proportion to their magnitude. Charter-house, Eton, and Winchester have annual revenues amounting to £22,750, £20,500, and £15,500 respectively. St. Paul's, Rugby, Shrewsbury, and Harrow have £9,500, £5,600, £3,000, and £1,000. Westminster is sustained from the revenues of the chapter to which it is attached, and the Merchant Taylors' School by the Merchant Taylors' Society. But it is the opinion of the Commissioners that to a large and popular school, so long as it is large and popular, a permanent endowment is not of essential importance; there can be no doubt, however, that such an endowment is of great service in enabling any school to provide and maintain suitable buildings, to attract to itself, by exhibitions and other substantial rewards, its due share of clever and hard-working boys, to keep up by these means its standard of industry and attainment, and run an equal race with others which possess this advantage, and to bear, without a ruinous diminution of its teaching staff, those fluctuations of prosperity to which all schools are liable.

Government.—The schools exhibit great diversities of government and constitution. The Governing Body of Eton College consists of the Provost and Fellows; of Winchester College, of the Warden and Fellows; of Westminster School, of the Dean and Canons of the church. These persons hold the college property and appoint and dismiss the Master. In the other schools these rights belong either to specially corporated trustees, or, as in the case of St. Paul's, by the will of Dean Colet, to the Court of Assistants of the Mercers' Company; in the Charter-house School, to the Governors of Sutton Hospital; and in the Merchant Taylors' School, to the Merchant Taylors' Company. The nature and extent of their power of superintendence over the Head Master is determined by documentary authority and by usage. In some cases his power is practically unfettered and supreme, at others his power of effecting changes is limited to recommendations to the governing body.

Uniformity in the constitution of these Governing Bodies is not essential, but some modifications are considered by the Commissioners desirable, and some common features should belong to them all. Such a body should be permanent in itself, being the guardian and trustee of the permanent interests of the school; though not unduly large, it should be protected by its numbers and by the position and character of its individual members from the domination of personal or local interests, and of personal or professional influences or prejudices; and might well include men conversant with the world, with the requirements of active life, and with the progress of literature and science. In the case of some of the schools a certain proportion of the Governing Body should be nominated

by the Crown. Their powers should include, at the least, the management of the property of the school and of its revenues; the control of its expenditure; the appointment and dismissal of the Head Master; the regulation of boarding-houses, of fees and charges, of Masters' stipends, of the terms of admission to the school, and of the times and length of vacations; the supervision of the general treatment of the boys, and all arrangements bearing on the sanitary condition of the school. As regards discipline and teaching, the Head Master, on the other hand, should be as far as possible unfettered. The appointment and dismissal of assistant masters, the measures necessary for maintaining discipline, and the general direction of the course and methods of study, which it is his duty to conduct and his business to understand thoroughly, had better be left in his hands. The introduction of a new branch of study, however, or the suppression of one already established, and the relative degrees of weight to be assigned to different branches, may be better judged of by such a body of governors as suggested, men conversant with the requirements of public and professional life and acquainted with the general progress of science and literature, than by a single person, however able and accomplished, whose views may be more circumscribed, and whose mind is liable to be unduly pressed by difficulties of detail. What should be taught, and what importance should be given to each subject, are therefore questions for the Governing Body; how to teach is a question for the Head Master. The Governing Body should, however, act upon such matters in connection with the Master.

If it is important that a thorough understanding and opportunities for unreserved communication should exist between the Governing Body and the Head Master, it is even more so that he should be on similar terms with his assistants. That there should be friendly intercourse between them, and that an assistant should be at liberty to make suggestions to his chief, is not enough. Valuable suggestions and useful information, which individual masters, and they only, are qualified to afford, may often be lost for want of a recognized opportunity of communicating them; and private interviews, however readily granted, are not an adequate substitute for free and general discussion. The practice introduced by Dr. Arnold at Rugby, of meeting all his assistants for consultation at frequent intervals, appears to have had the happiest results. A similar practice exists at Harrow, and comparing these schools with Eton, it is evident that the assistants here have a thorough sense of coöperation with the Head Master and with each other, which is wanting in the latter.

It is the invariable practice at Eton, and almost so at Winchester, to recruit the staff of Classical Masters, the Head Master included, from those who have been educated at those schools respectively. The other schools are restricted by no such rule or usage. The usage of one school differs much from that of another, and it is very desirable undoubtedly that the masters of every school should be perfectly familiar with its system of discipline and teaching, its unwritten customs, and all that stamps it

with a character of its own, as well as that they should be animated with a warm attachment to it. We believe, however, say the Commissioners, that even where tradition has most power it is not very difficult for an able and intelligent man to acquaint himself sufficiently in a short time with the distinctive features of the system which he has to administer; and the experience of a great majority of schools has amply shown how heartily such a man can throw himself into the working, and how thoroughly he can identify himself with the character and interests of one to which he has previously been a stranger. It must be observed at the same time, that a school which is debarred, or which bebars itself by a restriction of this kind, from taking the best man that can be had, must necessarily suffer from it to a greater or less degree; and it must be disadvantageous also for any school to be officered exclusively by men brought up within its walls, and imbued with its peculiar prejudices and opinions, and without experience of any system or any methods but its own.

Statutes—Necessity for a Power of Revision and Alteration.—Several of these schools possess ancient statutes or rules designed to settle permanently, with more or less of minuteness, their organization and course of teaching, but in some with no provision for the relaxation of them, or for their adaptation to new circumstances of a different state of society. Dean Colet, founder of St. Paul's, expressly authorized the Court of Assistants of the Mercers' Company to alter and amend his ordinances as might be deemed requisite from time to time. A similar power was given to the governors of Harrow, has been created at Winchester, and exists virtually to a greater or less extent at other schools. In the absence of them, recourse is invariably had to the principle, as it may be called, of desuetude; and it is assumed that old constitutions which contain minute directions and create no authority for varying them, must, when the lapse of time has rendered an exact compliance with them impracticable, be construed by the aid of such usages as have been gradually established by necessity or convenience. No accumulation, it is plain, of stringent or even imprecatory terms, as in the case of the Eton statutes, can ever secure perpetuity to institutions which from their very nature must undergo a change. Often, too, the spirit of the statutes, which it would be desirable to observe, is violated or forgotten. It is clearly expedient, if not indispensable, for the permanent continuance of foundations of this nature, that most extensive powers of adaptation and amendment should exist in all cases, and it seems only necessary to provide that they should be lodged in proper hands. There is evidently no security that practical changes will be made well and advisedly, which are introduced without deliberate intention, without responsibility, and without the intervention of any higher authority to protect the permanent interests of the foundation from being undermined by private and personal interests. The principle to be pursued, where ancient statutes are not abrogated but reformed, is sufficiently clear. The statutes of founders are to be upheld

and enforced whenever they conduce to the general objects of the foundation and so long as those objects continue to be practicable and useful, but they are to be modified whenever they require a closer adaptation to the wants of modern society.

Foundation Scholars; their Government and Condition.—Speaking generally, the foundation boys are, in the eye of the law, the school. The legal position of the Head Master of Eton is that of teacher or "informator" of seventy poor and indigent boys, received and boarded within Eton College; the Head Master of Harrow is legally the master of a daily grammar-school, established in a country village for the benefit, primarily, of its immediate neighborhood. A foundationer at Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury, is ordinarily a day-scholar, sharing gratuitously, or almost gratuitously, in the general instruction of the school. At Eton, Winchester, Westminster, and the Charter-house, he is a boy separately lodged, separately boarded, maintained as well as educated free of charge or at a comparatively small expense, and obtaining, or having the opportunity of competing for, a farther provision, more or less valuable, when he leaves school. But in every case, except those of Merchant Taylors' and St. Paul's, and perhaps Shrewsbury, the bulk of each school, as now existing, is an accretion upon the original foundation, and consists of boarders received by masters or other persons at their own expense and risk, and for their own profit. The proportion actually existing between foundationers and non foundationers, at the several schools which admit the latter, was as follows in 1861:—

	Foundationers.	Non-foundationers.
Eton,	61	722
Winchester,	69	128
Westminster,	40	96
Harrow,	33	431
Rugby,	68	397
Shrewsbury,	26	106
Charter-house,	45	71

In respect of these classes, there is, to a small extent, a real division of power and of responsibility. The Head Master can expel a non-foundationer; he can not expel a foundationer. But as convenience clearly required that the management of both classes should be one and the same, the Governing Body has acquired an indirect control over the whole school by virtue of their direct authority over a part of it; and it is desirable that for the purposes of government, instruction and discipline, all the boys should in every case be considered as one school, subject to the same authorities and in the same degree.

The position held by foundation boys among their school-fellows varies much at different schools. But it seems tolerably clear from the evidence that in none of the schools is he lowered in the estimation of his companions by the mere fact of his receiving an eleemosynary education, and apart from causes which judicious management may remove, there seems

to be nothing to prevent the foundationers from taking socially as well as intellectually an equal or (as in some cases they do) even the foremost rank in the school. It may generally be said that they enjoy advantages equal to those which the founders intended for them. Their situation has, at several of the schools, been greatly and progressively improved during the present century; and it is doubtless now better than it has been at any former period. They are better lodged, better fed, better taught, better attended to, than they ever were before—without meaning to imply that their position is better than it ought to be, taking into account the intentions of the several founders, the increased value of the endowments, and the change of manners.

There is no doubt that the collegiate schools were primarily though not solely designed for the benefit of meritorious poverty, as were the independent grammar-schools for the benefit of some particular town, village, or neighborhood. At Westminster the qualification respecting poverty is considered obsolete, and admission to the foundation has long been the prize of a competitive examination, and the same principle has been recently introduced at Eton and Winchester (with little or no preference for poverty) with excellent results. Speaking generally, it must be said that the difficulty of assigning a precise meaning to the word poverty, the doubt what class of persons, if any, at the present day, really answers to the *pauperes et indigentes scholares* of the Lancasterian and Tudor periods, and the further doubt whether poverty is not after all best served by giving the widest encouragement to industry, coupled with the interest which every school has in collecting the best boys from the largest surface, have tended and will continually tend to render the qualification of indigence practically inoperative. Respecting the right to gratuitous education originally conferred by the founders upon the children of the places where the schools were located, it is to be observed that the parents of the boys thus privileged are chiefly—at Harrow almost exclusively—strangers to the neighborhood, who have come to reside there temporarily, for the purpose of obtaining, at little expense to themselves, a good education for their children. As this was certainly not intended nor contemplated by the founder, the abolition of the local privilege in these cases is recommended.

Course and Subjects of Instruction.—The nine schools were educating altogether, at Christmas, 1861, 2,696 boys, between the ages of eight and nineteen years, the average age being not far short of fifteen years. Their numbers have fluctuated greatly within a recent period, some having fallen comparatively low while others enjoy a rank and popularity higher than ever before. The course of study of all these schools appears to have been originally confined to the classical languages and to have remained substantially unaltered from a very early to a very late period, governed in a great measure by established custom and habit. The position which the classics now hold is due in the first place perhaps to their intrinsic excellence as an instrument of education; but other causes

have shared largely in producing it. School education alters slowly and runs long in the same groove; a master can only teach what he has himself learned, and is naturally inclined to set the highest value on the studies to which his own life has been given. At the two oldest of the schools this tendency has been strengthened not only by ardent attachment to their peculiar traditions, but by the habit of receiving as Masters only men brought up within their own walls. The great schools, again, have always educated principally with a view to the Universities; the path of access to the learned professions lies through the Universities; the work done at school tells thoroughly and directly on the examinations for admission to the Universities and for University prizes and distinctions, whilst it has not, until recently, assisted a youth to obtain entrance into the public service, civil or military, at home or in India; the cleverest and most diligent boys, for whom the system of study has been chiefly molded, have gone to the Universities; and all the Masters have been University men.

The two classical languages, with a little ancient history and geography, held, until a short time ago, absolute and exclusive possession of the whole course of study. It now includes, at every school, arithmetic and mathematics as well as classics; at every school, except Eton, either French or German also—at Rugby and the Charter-house, both French and German, though at Rugby the natural sciences may be substituted. At Merchant Taylors' it includes Hebrew and drawing. Lectures on natural science are given at Winchester, and occasionally at Eton to those who wish to attend. There is also a lecturer on chemistry at the Charter-house, and periodical voluntary examinations in natural science at Harrow. Drawing may be learned as an extra at all the schools, and generally some instruction in music may be gained in the same way.

The means of classical instruction include the study of Latin and Greek grammar, the daily construing and occasional translation into English of Latin and Greek writers, the repetition of passages, chiefly of Latin and Greek poetry, that have been learned by heart, and the practice of composition in verse and prose. Construing, repetition, and composition are the chief occupation of the higher forms. There is some reason to think that the grounding in grammar is not always so thorough and accurate as is desirable, or that sufficient care is not taken to keep up what is thus acquired as the boys advance in their work. Different grammars, both Latin and Greek, are used in the different schools. The range of authors construed is sufficiently various and extensive, unless Eton be an exception. The assiduous practice of repetition, and that of composition, original and translated, has long been among the characteristics of the great English schools, and a high value is still set upon them by English schoolmasters.

The average time assigned to arithmetic and mathematics is about three hours a week in school and the same amount devoted to preparatory work. At a majority of the schools, marks are given for mathematics, depending generally upon the relative time devoted to it, which determ-

ine more or less a boy's rise in the classical forms of the school. In every school, except Eton, two hours a week, exclusive of preparation, are also given to modern languages, marks for which count in promotion only at Winchester, Harrow, and Rugby. There are distinct prizes at all the schools for proficiency in mathematics and in modern languages respectively. Classification in both these branches is, however, dependent upon that of the classical school, which is found a great hindrance to advancement. Indeed, both share the disadvantage of being subordinate to the principal study, which is that of the classics. The chief honors and distinctions of the schools are classical; their traditions are classical; the Head Master and the Tutors are men distinguished chiefly as classical scholars, and attached more or less ardently to classical learning; the path of promotion and the subjects on which the time and thoughts of the boys are employed are mainly classical; classics are also, to a great majority of the boys, intrinsically more attractive than mathematics, and to the oldest and most diligent more so than French and German. But mathematics at least have established a title to respect as an instrument of mental discipline; they are recognized and honored at the Universities, and it is easy to obtain mathematical masters of high ability who have had a University education. It is otherwise with the study of modern languages, which in each of these respects, but especially in the last, labors under peculiar and great difficulties; while it has had less time to establish itself and has to make head against a stronger current of tradition and habit. Hence the success with which these studies are pursued is, in different degrees, not answerable to the time spent in learning and the pains and ability employed in teaching them. There is an especial deficiency in arithmetic and in French. Yet it appears that, speaking generally, boys who succeed in classics succeed also in mathematics and in modern languages; showing that ordinarily any boy of good capacity may with advantage study each of these subjects, and may study them all together. One disadvantage peculiar to the study of modern languages is the difficulty of procuring thoroughly effective teachers. It is less easy for a foreigner than for an Englishman of equal ability or education, to maintain discipline, to enforce attention, to secure influence, to understand his pupils thoroughly, and therefore to teach them well. Two of the teachers at the nine schools are Englishmen and two were educated at the schools where they teach. At Marlborough both French and German are taught by Englishmen. At Wellington School one foreign master in each language is employed, under whom are placed the best modern scholars and the beginners, while those boys who chiefly require to be steadily worked in exercises and construing, are under English masters.

The importance of some attention to history and geography is recognized more or less at all the schools, but in general there is little systematic teaching of either. In the lower forms it is common to give lessons in the outlines of history and geography, but all done beyond that is

generally to set a boy a portion of history to get up by himself, to examine him in it, and to encourage the farther study by means of prize essays. Special examinations in history, when held, occur either at the end or beginning of the term, the portion being set in the latter case as a "holiday task." At Harrow and Rugby every boy is made to traverse the whole outline of classical, Biblical, and English history in the course of his stay at school; partly by holiday tasks, partly by regular lessons at school. The proper degree and method of teaching history is a subject upon which English schoolmasters seem to have arrived at no very definite conclusions. At Marborough, Wellington, and to some extent at Rugby, the reading of modern history is combined with that of French.

Organization. Promotion. Prizes.—A great school possesses, from its very magnitude, considerable advantages as a place of instruction, besides those which it derives from the same source as a place of moral training. It is able to command the services of the most eminent masters; it is likely to contain a comparatively large number of able and ambitious boys; the honors and distinctions which it has to offer are more prized because the successful competitor wins them from a larger field, and in the presence of a larger public; it has facilities, which a small school can not have, for the convenient organization of classes in each branch of study. It has, on the other hand, disadvantages of its own. The number of competitors, which braces and stimulates the energies of the ablest boys, may discourage backward ones; it is more difficult for a boy to obtain, and more easy for him to elude, the individual attention of the Master in whose form he is. The forms themselves must be very large or very numerous; in the former case it becomes a matter of chance whether a boy gets any teaching at all, in the latter he passes from one teacher to another too quickly to get full benefit from any; and these circumstances, with the small share of responsibility which each Master feels for the progress of each particular boy, strengthen, in either case, the temptation to take pains with only the more promising, and to let dullness and idleness take their chance. If the rewards of industry are more brilliant, idleness has also greater and more varied charms—has (except, perhaps, in the highest parts of the school) no influential public opinion against it, and holds out to a healthy and active boy who can succeed in games of strength and skill, distinctions which he prizes more than the honors of the school—distinctions also which are more within his reach, and give him more immediate influence among his schoolfellows.

The most obvious inconvenience—the multiplication of forms—has been met to some extent by the Eton system of "divisions," and by the Rugby system of "parallel forms," but the chief remedy for this and other difficulties has been sought in the practice of placing every boy under the special charge of a tutor, whose connection with him continues unbroken during the whole of his stay at school, and whose duty it is to bestow that attention on him and undertake that responsibility for him

which can not be expected from the successive class-masters through whose hands he passes. To a very considerable extent this is an effectual remedy, provided each tutor has not more pupils than he can really attend to, and his relation to them is not suffered to degenerate into a merely nominal one.

The following Table will show the relative numbers of masters and boys in the several schools at the end of 1861 :—

	Number of Boys.	Number of Masters.			Num'er of Classical Divisions.	Maxim. in a Divis'n.	Minim. in a Divis'n.
		Classical.	Mathem.	Mod. Lan.			
Eton, ...	806	23	8	1	22	48	13
Winchester, ...	200	7*	2	3	8	41	10
Westminster, ...	136	5	2	2	6	30	12
Charter-house, ...	116	5	1†	3	8	20	9
St. Paul's, ...	146	4	1	2	6	40	15
Merchant Taylors', .	262	6	4	2	10	32	18
Harrow, ...	481	16	4	2	14	37	21
Rugby, ...	463	14‡	3§	2	14	42	24
Shrewsbury, ...	131	4	1	1	4	40	23

The proper size of a division is limited by conditions. It should not contain boys in such different stages of progress that they can not advantageously be employed in the same work and heard together. It should be small enough to admit of all the boys who compose it being called up very frequently. By the first condition the number may vary from 15 to 60, according to the size of the school. The second condition is independent of the magnitude of the school. It has been urged in favor of large divisions that the number of boys animates the teacher, and enables him in turn to infuse life into his class. But it is still more important that the expectation of being called up should be strong enough to act as a thoroughly efficient stimulus from the top to the bottom of the division; that the benefit of being called up should be shared by all the boys very frequently; and that the class-master should not be tempted, by the number before him and the limited time at his disposal, either to pass over the more backward, or to abate his standard of accuracy, or be less searching in his questions. Differences in the method of teaching may in some degree affect the question, but as a general rule and in the absence of special circumstances, the average number should not much, if at all, exceed thirty.

The time actually spent in the school preparation of lessons, in the case of the upper boys, is small. An Eton fifth form boy is in school, on a whole school-day, about three hours, or during the week, from fourteen to fifteen; an upper boy at Harrow is at school about four hours and a

* Of these 3 were Composition Masters. A Classical Master has since been added.

† There is an Assistant Master of writing and arithmetic.

‡ One of these also teaches mathematics.

§ One of these also teaches natural science.

half, or in the week, about twenty-two hours; at Rugby, about twenty hours. A certain amount of time is also spent with the private tutor. The regular holidays subtract wholly from work 14 or 15 weeks in the year. It is evident, unless a good deal of time is given out of school to steady genuine work in preparation and composition, the work done is deficient in quantity. The whole daily work of boys not particularly diligent nor particularly idle, a class which constitutes the majority at all schools, can not be considered, lazy and desultory as much of it is, as averaging more than from four to five hours. With a studious boy, who works for distinction yet takes his full share of play, the time may fairly be reckoned, at Eton and Harrow, at about six hours honestly spent, and more when he is preparing for some special prize or examination; at Rugby, at about seven.

To insure, if possible, something like careful preparation of lessons, different expedients have been resorted to. But it is generally true that when a boy has reached an age at which he may fairly be deemed capable of reasonable steadiness and self-control, little stress can be laid on direct supervision as a means of making him learn his lessons; this can be done, if at all, by giving him full employment for his time, by insisting upon an accurate knowledge of his work and upon fair progress, by bringing the sense of duty, the desire of honor, and the fear of disgrace, effectively to bear upon his mind, and, in the last resort, by the dread of punishment.

The most important by far of the stimulants which a school is able to supply is furnished by the system of promotion. The systems actually in use are various. Seniority or length of standing, with or without a test examination—daily marks given for each lesson and exercise throughout the half year—and success in competitive examinations, yearly, half-yearly, or quarterly, are used, separately or in combination, at different schools. The first principle, with a test examination and a certain infusion of the competitive element, is adopted at Eton; the second at Winchester; the second and third combined at Harrow and Rugby. It may generally be observed that promotion on the ground of seniority alone, without even a test examination, must always be indefensible; and that between a test examination and a competitive examination, whether at a school or a university, there are some obvious differences. The former stimulates only by the discredit of failure, the latter enlists as an additional motive the honor of success; the standard in the first is really set by the lower candidates examined, and in the other by the higher; a test standard has thus a constant tendency to decline to a low point. A school, therefore, whose system of promotion is in practice mainly non-competitive, contents itself with a not very active stimulus for the sake of having one which can be extended over a very large surface, and runs the risk of having a somewhat low standard of scholarship. The advantages which may be purchased at this cost are not inconsiderable ones. As regards prizes, it is useful, no doubt, to have many for many kinds

of excellence, and to have prizes open to limited portions of a school as well as to the whole. But it is more important, as a general rule, that prizes should be held in high estimation than that they should be many in number; and it is so easy, on the one hand, by having too many of them, to defeat their object in calling out the highest excellence—so easy, on the other, by having too few, to restrict their operation unduly—that there are few subjects which require a greater exercise of care and judgment on the part of the authorities. The system of daily marking is a direct inducement to study and regular diligence; and periodical examinations are useful not only in compelling the boy to prove that he is master of what has been taught, but in cultivating the power of storing up, arranging, and producing knowledge, and of answering questions intelligibly on paper, which is not a universal accomplishment. The publication of school lists is a useful expedient, and at some schools especially has been turned to good account.

We are well aware, of course, that no system, however perfect, of promotion or of instruction, can do much to combat idleness unless the masters thoroughly and conscientiously discharge the hardest and most ungrateful part of their duty—the task of teaching those who are not disposed to learn. We are aware also that emulation has its disadvantages, and that as a stimulus to exertion it is morally far inferior to the sense of duty. We are not ignorant of that *vis inertiæ* which sheer inveterate idleness opposes to every kind of pressure, or of the difficulty of making, by any means, an idle boy diligent, on whom neither emulation nor duty has any sensible power. Neither do we forget that the cultivation of the intellect is not the sole end of education, nor the only object for which boys are sent to school. But a good system makes good teachers. Secondary motives are wanted for boys, whose habits are unformed and whose chief temptation is to waste time, as much at least as by men; and the desire of immediate success supplies in youth the place of those provident cares and far-reaching aims which take possession of the mind in maturer years. If there is a good deal of unconquerable idleness in every great school, there is much certainly that is not unconquerable; and whatever else a boy may have gained at school, he has not gained that which school education should give, if he leaves it with mental powers uncultivated, and without having acquired, in some degree, the habits of exertion, attention, self-denial, and self-control, which are necessary conditions of progress. A lad who makes no progress, or lags constantly behind his fellows, gets little good from his school, to which he is commonly himself a mischievous incumbrance; and it is of the highest importance that no boy should be admitted into any school who is unfit, from want of preparation, to enter upon its course of teaching among boys not much younger than himself, and that no boy should be allowed to remain at any school who does not make reasonable progress in it. The consequence of not exacting sufficient preparation is, that boys come at twelve or thirteen years of age with less knowledge than

they should have at nine or ten. The consequence of permitting them to remain at school without making progress is, that they either stagnate at the bottom of it, or are pushed up without exertion on their own part, are employed at work for which they are unfit, and are a drag and a dead weight on the boys more forward than themselves, with whom they are associated in doing it.

Results of the Instruction.—It is a far easier matter to ascertain how much is taught at the public schools than to determine how much is learned. It would appear, from the class-lists and lists of prize-men at the two Universities, that a fair proportion of classical honors at least is gained by the public schools, and that those who enter from the highest forms are, on the whole, well-taught classical scholars. But these notoriously form a small proportion of the boys who receive a public-school education. The great mass of such boys expose themselves to no tests which they can possibly avoid, and there are hardly any data for ascertaining how they acquit themselves in the easy examinations which must be passed in order to obtain a degree. Of the number of undergraduates at Oxford about one-third, and at Cambridge rather more than one-fifth, come from the public schools, and nearly three-fourths of these are from Eton, Harrow, and Rugby. Of the boys educated at the schools who leave for the Universities, none of the nine schools sends as many as half its number—the average proportion is about one-third. As a rule, not only the best scholars at the Universities come from the public schools but also (and in this Eton has a certain preëminence) the idlest and most ignorant men. In the subject of mathematics, however, the public schools hold a position of marked inferiority to other places of education. The Commissioners draw the following conclusions as to the general results:—That boys who have capacity and industry enough to work for distinction, are, on the whole, well taught in the article of classical scholarship, but that even these occasionally show a want of accuracy in elementary knowledge, either from not having been well grounded, or from having been suffered to forget what they have learned;—That the average of classical knowledge among young men leaving school for college is low;—That in arithmetic and mathematics, in general information and in English, the average is lower still, but is improving;—That of the time spent at school by the generality of boys, much is absolutely thrown away as regards intellectual progress, either from ineffective teaching, from the continued teaching of subjects in which they can not advance, or from idleness, or from a combination of these causes;—That in arithmetic and mathematics the public schools are specially defective, and that this observation is not to be confined to any particular class of boys.

The number of public-school boys who enter the army is not large. Of 1,976 candidates for direct commissions within three years, 122 only had been at any of the schools, and of these but 20 failed—a proportion considerably below the average. Of 96 who passed, 38 came immedi-

ately from school. The scheme of examinations for direct commissions is simple and easy, and requires nothing that is beyond the reach of any boy of moderate industry and ordinary capacity. The public-school candidates for Sandhurst in the same time were 28 out of 375. Of the 18 who succeeded (also above the average proportion) 11 came direct from school. The qualifying examination for Woolwich required, before 1862, an amount of mathematical knowledge difficult of attainment for a boy educated at a public school, but then underwent some changes which make it easier. In three years previous to this change, 35 public-school candidates passed and 49 failed to pass, the totals of candidates being 545 and 689. Of the whole 84, two only went direct from the schools and these failed.

The Course and Subjects of Instruction proper for the Schools.—For the instruction of boys, especially when collected in a large school, it is material that there should be some one principal branch of study, invested with a recognized and, if possible, a traditional importance, to which the principal weight should be assigned, and the largest share of time and attention given. This is necessary in order to concentrate attention, to stimulate industry, to supply to the whole school a common ground of literary interest and a common path of promotion. The study of the classical languages and literature at present occupies this position in all the great English schools and with the advantage of long possession —an advantage so great that we should certainly hesitate to advise the dethronement of it, even if we were prepared to recommend a successor.

It is not without reason, however, that the foremost place has been assigned to this study. Grammar is the logic of common speech, and there are few educated men who are not sensible of the advantages they gained as boys from the steady practice of composition and translation, and from their introduction to etymology. The study of literature is the study, not indeed of the physical, but of the intellectual and moral world we live in, and of the thoughts, lives, and characters of those men whose writings and whose memories succeeding generations have thought it worth while to preserve.

We are equally convinced that the best materials available to Englishmen for these studies are furnished by the languages and literature of Greece and Rome. From the regular structure of their languages, from their logical accuracy of expression, from the comparative ease with which their etymology is traced and reduced to general laws, from their severe canons of taste and style, from the very fact that they are "dead," and have been handed down to us directly from the periods of their highest perfection, comparatively untouched by the inevitable process of degeneration and decay, they are beyond all doubt the finest and most serviceable models we have for the study of language. As literature, they supply the most graceful and some of the noblest poetry, the finest eloquence, the deepest philosophy, the wisest historical writing; and these excellencies are such as to be appreciated keenly, though inadequately,

by young minds and to leave, as in fact they do, a lasting impression. Besides this, it is at least a reasonable opinion that this literature has had a powerful effect in molding and animating the statesmanship and political life of England. Nor is it to be forgotten that the whole civilization of modern Europe is really built upon the foundations laid two thousand years ago by two highly civilized nations on the shores of the Mediterranean; that their languages supply the key to our modern tongues; their poetry, history, philosophy, and law, to the poetry, history, philosophy, and jurisprudence, of modern times; that this key can seldom be acquired except in youth, and that the possession of it, as daily experience proves, and as those who have it not will most readily acknowledge, is very far from being merely a literary advantage.

It may be objected that this is only true provided the study is carried far enough, and that in a large proportion of cases it is not carried far enough. Of the young men who go to the Universities a great number never acquire so much Latin and Greek as would enable them to read the best classical authors intelligently and with pleasure, and more than half of those who leave school do not go to the Universities at all; among these the average of classical attainment is certainly lower still, and probably in nine cases out of ten they never, after they have quitted school, open a Greek or Latin book. It may be asked whether the mental discipline which such boys have received could not have been imparted to them at least as well by other studies, in which they might perhaps have made more sensible progress, and which would have furnished them at the same time with knowledge practically and immediately serviceable to them in the business of life.

This objection supposes that there should be different courses in each school for different capacities, (a question discussed farther on,) or that there should be but one course in which the classics should not enter or should hold a subordinate place. Now it is and ought to be the aim of the public schools to give an education of the best kind, not of the second best. Their great service consists in giving such an education to boys who have capacity and industry enough to take advantage of it, and they should not forego this office for the sake of bringing down their teaching to a level adjusted to the reach of dull, uncultivated, or listless minds. They are bound indeed to adjust it to the scope of ordinary intellects, for the vast majority of boys intrusted to them are not clever. But it is not necessary to be clever in order to gain solid advantage from the study of Latin and Greek; it is only necessary to be attentive, a condition equally indispensable to progress in any other study. And without doubt, a boy of ordinary capacity, and even a dull and backward boy who can be induced to take pains, is likely to profit more on the whole in a school where he has highly cultivated masters, and travels the same road with companions who are being highly educated, where there is a higher standard of taste and attainment, and the instruments and whole machinery of instruction are of the finest and most perfect kind, than he

would under a system sedulously lowered to the pitch of his own intellectual powers.

Yet the course should not be exclusively classical. It is the office of education not only to discipline some of the faculties, but to awaken, call out, and exercise them all so far as this can usefully be done in boyhood; to awaken tastes that may be developed in after life; to impart early habits of reading, thought, and observation; and to furnish the mind with such knowledge as is wanted at the outset of life. A young man is not educated—indeed, is not educated at all—who can not reason or observe or express himself easily and correctly, and who is unable to bear his part in cultivated society from ignorance of things which all who mix in it are assumed to be acquainted with. He is not well educated if his information is all shut up within one narrow circle, and if he has not been taught at least that beyond what he has been able to acquire lie great and varied fields of knowledge, some of which he may afterwards explore if he has inclination and opportunity to do so. The kind of knowledge which is necessary or useful, and the best way of exercising or disciplining the faculties, must vary, of course, with the habits and requirements of the age and of the society in which his life is to be spent. No system of instruction can be framed which will not require modification from time to time. The highest and most useful office of education is certainly to train and discipline; but it is not the only office. And whilst in the busy world too great a value perhaps is sometimes set upon the actual acquisition of knowledge and too little upon the mental discipline which enables men to acquire and turn it to the best account, there is also a tendency which is exactly the reverse of this, and which is among the besetting temptations of the ablest schoolmasters; and if very superficial men may be produced by one of these influences, very ignorant men are sometimes produced by the other.

The objections commonly made to any extension of the old course of study are of a more or less practical character. It is said that many things which ought to be learned ought not to be learned at school, and are best acquired before going thither or after leaving it; that they can not be imparted there effectively nor without injury to more important studies, without dissipating the attention and overloading the mind; that the capacity for learning which an average boy possesses is, after all, very limited, and his capacity for forgetting very great; that ability is rare and industry not very common; that if the apparent results are small, they do not quite represent the real benefit received; and that the actual results, such as they are, are the best which in practice it is possible to obtain.

There is truth here, yet these arguments have in fact been used against all the improvements that have been already introduced and with proud success. It is quite true that much less can, generally speaking, be mastered and retained by a young mind than theorists might suppose; and true that it is not easy to win steady attention from a high-spirited

English lad, who has the restless activity and love of play that belong to youth and health; who, like his elders, thinks somewhat slowly, and does not express himself readily, and to whom mental effort is troublesome. But these are difficulties which it is the business of the schoolmaster to contend with, and which careful and skillful teaching may, to some extent, overcome. If a youth, after four or five years spent at school, quits it at nineteen, unable to construe an easy bit of Latin or Greek without the help of a dictionary, or to write Latin grammatically, almost ignorant of geography and of the history of his own country, unacquainted with any modern language but his own, and hardly competent to write English correctly, to do a simple sum, or stumble through an easy proposition in Euclid, a total stranger to the laws which govern the physical world and to its structure, with an eye and hand unpracticed in drawing, and without knowing a note of music, with an uncultivated mind and no taste for reading or observation, his intellectual education must certainly be accounted a failure, though there may be no fault to find with his principles, character, or manners; yet this is much more commonly than it ought to be the product of English public-school education.

It is true also that besides what is learned at school by the boy, much may and ought to be acquired by the child, and much more by the man. But that boys come very ill prepared to school is the general complaint, and the evil seems to be on the increase. On the other hand, there are many men who do not learn much after they leave school, because few men read much, for want of inclination or leisure. The schools have it in their power to remedy, to a certain extent, the former of these deficiencies by a stricter examination on entrance; and it should be their aim to at least diminish the latter by opening the minds of their scholars and implanting tastes which are now wanting. But the chances of leisure after entrance into active life must always be precarious. The school has absolute possession of the boy during four or five years, the most valuable years of pupilage, the time when the powers of apprehension and memory are brightest, when the faculty of observation is quick and lively, and he is forming his acquaintance with the various objects of knowledge. Something surely may be done during that time in the way not of training alone, but of positive acquisition, and the school is responsible for turning it to the best account.

The extension of the present course, as proposed, is but very moderate. The importance of arithmetic and mathematics is already recognized, and it is only necessary that they should be taught more effectively. The course should include arithmetic, so taught as to make every boy thoroughly familiar with it, and the elements of geometry, algebra, and plane trigonometry. In the case of the more advanced students, it should also comprise an introduction to applied mathematics. All the boys at every school should, in some part at least of their passage through it, learn either French or German. Natural science is, with slight exceptions,

practically excluded from the education of the higher classes in England, and education is, in this respect, narrower than it was three centuries ago. This exclusion is a great practical evil, narrowing unduly and injuriously the mental training of the young, and the knowledge, interests, and pursuits of men in maturer life. For all educated men an early introduction to natural science is desirable, if not necessary, and the value of the study, as a means of opening the mind and disciplining the faculties, is recognized by all who have taken the trouble to acquire it. It quickens and cultivates directly the faculty of observation, which in very many persons lies almost dormant through life, the power of accurate and rapid generalization, and the mental habit of method and arrangement; it accustoms young persons to trace the sequence of cause and effect; it familiarizes them with a kind of training which interests them, and which they can promptly comprehend; and it is perhaps the best corrective for that indolence which is the vice of half-awakened minds, and which shrinks from any exertion which is not, like an effort of memory, merely mechanical. The teaching must necessarily be elementary, and this thoroughly understood, as far as it goes, will satisfy the purposes in view. An hour or two in the week of class teaching, properly seconded, will be found to produce substantial fruits. Whether the sciences should be taught in their logical order, at what age or point of intellectual progress any part of the subject should be taken up, in what manner it should be taught, and how far pursued, are questions to be settled by experience, and by the inquiries and deliberate judgment of the various Governing Bodies. Every boy should learn either music or drawing during a part at least of his stay at school. Positive inaptitude for the education of the ear and voice, or for that of the hand and eye, is rare; and these accomplishments are useful as instruments of training and valuable possessions in after life. Greater attention should be paid to history and geography than they now receive. A taste for history may be gained at school; the habit of reading intelligently should certainly be acquired then, and few books can be intelligently read without some knowledge of history, and no history without geography. More attention should also be given to English composition and orthography. A command of pure grammatical English is not necessarily gained by construing Latin and Greek, though the study of the classical languages is, or rather may be made, an instrument of the highest value for that purpose.

It may be objected that there is not time for such a course of study as this. But we are persuaded that by effective teaching time can be found for these things without encroaching on the hours of play; and that room may be made for them, by taking trouble, in the head of any ordinary boy. Of the time spent at school by nine boys out of ten, much is wasted which it is quite possible to economize. Time is economized by increasing attention; attention is sharpened and kept alive by a judicious change of work. A boy can attend without flagging to what

interests him, and what he attends to he can generally retain; but without real attention there can be no progress, and without progress, no intellectual discipline worth the name. The great difficulty of a public school is simple idleness, which is defended by numbers, and entrenched behind the system and traditions of the place, and against which the Master, if he be active, wages a more or less unequal war.

Time and Relative Value to be assigned to different Branches.—It is essential that every part of the regular course of study should have assigned to it a due proportion of the whole time given to study. Where all the subjects are pursued together—assuming that the lessons take about an hour each, and that they will be such as to demand for preparation, in the case of the classics, ten additional hours, and in those of modern languages and natural science respectively, at least two additional hours in the week, and that composition will demand about five hours—it is proposed that eleven hours be given to classics, with history and divinity; three hours to arithmetic and mathematics; and two hours each to the modern languages, natural science, and music or drawing.

It is also essential that every branch should be encouraged by the stimulus of reward and punishment; that every non-classical subject (except music and drawing) in that part of the school where it is compulsory should effect promotion; that a scale of marks should be settled upon for this purpose, and moreover, that the non-classical studies should be encouraged by prizes appropriated to them respectively. The relative weights proposed to be assigned to the classics, with history and divinity, is not less than $\frac{4}{9}$ nor more than $\frac{5}{9}$—to each of the three non-classical subjects, not less than $\frac{1}{9}$ nor more than $\frac{2}{9}$—to the three non-classical subjects combined, $\frac{1}{3}$.

Experiment of a separate Modern Department.—Careful consideration is due to the question of the desirableness of introducing into the public schools, side by side with their classical organization, a distinct department for the prosecution of what are sometimes called modern, and sometime practical, studies, into which boys should be allowed to pass, either immediately upon their admission to the school or after having made a certain amount of progress in it, and in which they should be instructed principally in modern languages, mathematics, natural science, history, geography, and other branches of an English education, classical teaching being made subordinate and not of primary importance.

It is frequently said that there are boys who have no natural aptitude for classical studies, and upon whom classical teaching is consequently thrown away, but who would take in and profit by a thoroughly good system of practical education; that there are others whose destinations in life render it important that they should receive special instruction in subjects which can not be adequately taught as mere adjuncts to a classical course; and that it is hard that such boys should be condemned either to waste their time on uncongenial and unsuitable pursuits, or to forego altogether the benefits of a public-school career. It would not be

difficult to find arguments in favor of making special provision for these two classes of boys. We are not indeed disposed to attach great weight to the argument from inapitude, for, though the capacities of boys for classical study must vary, as they do for other kinds of study, we believe that under a judicious system of teaching, administered by a sufficient number of competent masters, with a due regard to the individual characters of their pupils, almost any boy may attain such an amount of proficiency in the classics as can not fail to be of material advantage to him. The large proportion of failures, which we can not but recognize, is mainly to be attributed to the system under which idle and inferior boys are allowed to do their work in a slovenly and inefficient manner, or even to shelter themselves from the necessity of working at all. Still there are many boys who could not by any process of teaching be made superior scholars, and upon whom the high polish of which others are susceptible would be thrown away; as there are, on the other hand, many who have peculiar capabilities for scientific studies, to whom it would be of the greatest advantage to receive a higher amount of scientific instruction than would be desirable for the generality of their school-fellows, and it may fairly be urged that it would be of advantage for such boys to be allowed to drop some portion of their classical, in order to devote more time to other work. So too with regard to those boys who are said to require special preparation for their future career in life. While we strongly deprecate the idea of reducing the education of our public schools to a standard based merely upon calculations of direct and immediate utility, and should regard it as a great misfortune if those who direct them were to aim at the mere imparting of practical knowledge, or the mere training of their pupils for competitive examinations, we can not close our eyes to the fact that parents who find their sons left in total ignorance of matters which will be important to them in after life, or who perceive that they are unable to compete successfully for the professional and other prizes which are open to their contemporaries, are tempted to take the solution of the question between classical and practical education into their own hands, by removing their sons at an early age from the public school and placing them under the far less satisfactory care of a private tutor.

In France and in Germany provision is made for giving such boys as these an entirely distinct education. In France the pupils in the *lycées* are divided into three classes; they all pass through the elementary and grammar divisions, but when they reach the highest division, they have to elect between the *section littéraire* and the *section scientifique*, it being necessary for those who seek a degree in letters or law to attach themselves to the former, and for those who seek one in science or medicine to join the latter. Boys destined for commerce or industrial professions also usually enter the latter. Their divergence in the course of education is known by the term *bifurcation*. The period of separate instruction in these two sections lasts for three years, during which time,

however, a certain amount of inter-communication takes place between them, the pupils of the *section littéraire* attending lectures on geometry, physics, chemistry, and natural history, and those of the *section scientifique* attending lectures on French, Latin, history, and geography. In the fourth year they all unite in the study of logic and of the application of the laws of thought and reasoning.

In Germany the business of preparing boys for the Universities is left to the *Gymnasien*, and that of educating them for other careers is assigned to the *Real-schulen*, which are wholly distinct and separate establishments. The French principle, therefore, of keeping the pupils together while they are pursuing different lines of study, is in theory reversed in Prussia. The system of bifurcation is, however, admitted into a few of the *Gymnasien*, by the introduction, at a certain point in the school, of parallel classes, in which the instruction is the same as in the corresponding classes of the *Real-schulen;* and it is stated that the *Gymnasien* are preferred by many to the *Real-schulen* even for boys destined for commercial and industrial pursuits.

In England several attempts have of late years been made to ingraft a modern department upon a classical school and to conduct it upon distinct principles. Cheltenham College consists, in fact, of two schools, into which boys enter separately, one of them a very efficient and successful classical school of the ordinary type, the other a school in which the boys learn comparatively little Latin and no Greek, but natural science is taught and great stress is laid on modern languages. The number of boys in the modern department is 276, nearly equaling the number in the classical. Marlborough has likewise its modern department, into which, however, boys do not enter till they have reached a certain point in the school, (the sixth out of thirteen divisions into which it is arranged,) and which, in 1862, contained 62 boys, or somewhat more than one-seventh of the school, taught by three masters. At Wellington College, in every form from about the middle of the school to the top, there are a certain number of boys who do less classics and more modern work than the rest of the form, and these are grouped in separate divisions, called the mathematical divisions. Few here among the boys, except those who are backward or to leave the school young, enter the mathematical divisions at the earliest point; the "cleverer moderns" continuing their Greek until they have reached the upper forms, with a view to make it available in examinations. The whole number in the mathematical divisions in 1862 was 23, a little more than 10 per cent. of the school. The City of London School is a great day-school in the heart of London, having little connection with the Universities, and educating, apparently, with great success, a very large proportion of boys who are not intended for Oxford or Cambridge. At the same time the classical and mathematical education given there is so good that of those who do go to the Universities nearly all distinguish themselves. It is therefore somewhat remarkable that, although an opportunity is afforded to the

boys of branching off at a certain stage in their career into a class where they are not required to learn Greek, very few are found to avail themselves of it. The school at King's College, London, containing more than 400 boys, appears to be organized upon the same principle as Cheltenham, except that the link of connection between the two divisions is slighter. The classical and modern departments, in point of numbers, are nearly equal.

The object of these systems is twofold:—1. To prepare boys for definite examinations in which they would not succeed if they competed direct from the classical school. The chief of these are the examinations for Woolwich and Sandhurst, which mainly govern the reading of the higher classes in the modern department at Cheltenham, and with a result which is beyond doubt successful. Yet it appears that at Marlborough and Cheltenham—both of them schools eminently successful at the Universities—a modern department is not needed to enable a good classical scholar to succeed in the Woolwich examination as it is now conducted, and boys could be sent in for Woolwich with almost equal advantage from either department. What it does is to enable boys, who are not good classical scholars, to succeed in that examination by obtaining high marks in other subjects—but its utility is limited because there are, in fact, few boys of ordinary abilities who can not, by taking pains, become fair scholars. What is true of the Woolwich examination is true, in a still greater degree, of others which are less hard and less special in their character. The main object of all competitive examinations is to ascertain which of the candidates is the ablest and most industrious and has profited most by the education he has received, and those who conduct them are no doubt alive to the importance of so arranging their details as to give the boys who have had the best general education the advantage over those who have been specially prepared in particular subjects with a view to obtain a large number of marks. The main studies of the public schools being classical, it is obvious that unless a due amount of weight is given to the classics in the Woolwich examinations, boys from those schools will not stand a fair chance in the competition. On the other hand, as it is of importance that the examinations should comprise other subjects besides classics, it is also obvious that unless the public schools provide a due amount of instruction in those other subjects, the candidates whom they send up must compete at a disadvantage. It is certain that there has hitherto been a want of adjustment between the Woolwich standard and the teaching of the public schools. The fault lies chiefly, though not wholly, in the deficiencies in the course of education pursued at the latter; and when those deficiencies have been supplied, the difficulty which is now complained of will speedily disappear.

2. The second object is to attempt to solve, in some degree, the question, How far is it possible to give a really good public-school education on any other basis than that of instruction in the dead languages? So far as the experiment has yet been tried it is the generally expressed

opinion of those engaged in it that the result is so far successful as to justify much confidence in its value, and though a system of mixed classical and modern study may be deemed preferable, yet a thoroughly sound education may be given upon the basis of modern studies and mathematics, excluding classics; but that the practical difficulties which lie in the way are exceedingly great. It is difficult to find men thoroughly competent to teach modern languages as they ought to be taught, as the basis of literary study. There are not the well annotated books, the carefully arranged grammars, the accepted curriculum of authors, which classical study has to offer to them who pursue it. From the number of different lines along which it is thought necessary to conduct the students, there are difficulties in organizing classes and in apportioning and duly limiting the hours of work, and there is also some obvious difficulty in administering a modern department without breaking up the unity of the school.

The advisability of establishing at the older public schools a system resembling either of those which exist at Marlborough and Cheltenham does not rest therefore upon grounds solidly established by experience, and the risks and difficulties of the experiment, which are felt in the newly established schools, would be felt much more if the attempt were made to ingraft modern departments on the old classical schools. They are, and they still ought to be, essentially classical schools; yet at the same time, the general course of study in all these schools should be broader than it now is and should also be more elastic. The course should be extended by the addition of new subjects, as already proposed; and provision ought to be made for the discontinuance, in certain cases, of certain portions of study, in order to enable boys to pursue other portions farther than the usual course allows. The Governing Body should of course take care so to regulate the proportion between the work to be abandoned and the work to be substituted for it, as to obviate the risk of idle boys seeking permission to discontinue difficult lessons and to take up easy ones. No discontinuance should be permitted until the boy has reached such a position in the school as to render it certain that he has had full and fair opportunity for testing his powers in all the branches of study comprised in the course. It should not be allowed unless upon the application of the parents as well as of the boy; nor unless the Head Master is satisfied that there are good grounds for the request, and that the boy's character and abilities are such as to render it desirable that it should be granted. The work to be taken up should be fully equal in its demands upon the boy's time and attention with that which is to be dropped, and it should be enforced with the same strictness and encouraged with the same care as the ordinary work of the school. Experience will show how far such a system may advantageously be carried, what form may most conveniently be given to it, and what changes it may require.

Deficient Preparation. Home Influence.—Strong complaints, which

are by no means without foundation, are made of the ill-prepared and ignorant state in which boys are very frequently sent to school, and this evil is upon the increase, rather than the reverse. There are many boys whose education can hardly be said to have begun till they enter, at the age of twelve or thirteen, or even later, a school containing several hundreds, where there can be comparatively little of that individual teaching which a very backward boy requires. The consequence is that the schools are impeded and embarrassed by the necessity of giving elementary instruction which should have been given earlier and elsewhere. In some degree this evil must be ascribed to the deficiencies of the preparatory schools—but the fault rests chiefly with the parents. It is recommended that at every school there be an entrance examination, which shall not be merely nominal and the standard of which shall be graduated according to the age of the candidate. When it is known that the test is established, and known that it will be adhered to, parents will have themselves only to blame if their sons are deprived of the advantages of a public-school education for want of qualifications which might have been secured by proper and timely care.

Of all the incitements to diligence and good conduct which act upon the mind of a school-boy, the most powerful, generally speaking, is the wish to satisfy his parents; and his view of duty when at school will always depend very much on the light in which he feels that it is regarded at home. He knows very well the estimation in which industry is held by his parents. If their real object in sending him to a public school is merely or chiefly that he should make advantageous acquaintances and gain knowledge of the world, this is likely to be no secret to him, and the home influence, which ought to be the Master's most efficacious auxiliary, becomes in such cases the greatest obstacle to progress.

Physical Training. Games, &c.—The bodily training which gives health and activity to the frame is imparted at English schools, not by the gymnastic exercises which are employed for that end on the Continent, but by athletic games, which, while they serve this purpose well, serve other purposes besides. Pursued as a recreation and voluntarily, they are pursued with all the eagerness which boyhood throws into its amusements; and they implant the habit, which does not cease with boyhood, of seeking recreation in hardy and vigorous exercise. The cricket and football fields, however, are not merely places of exercise and amusement; they help to form some of the most valuable social qualities and manly virtues, and they hold, like the class-room and the boarding-house, a distinct and important place in public-school education. Their importance is fully recognized. Ample time is given for them, and they have ample encouragement in general from the authorities of the schools. It is possible, indeed, to carry this too far and at some schools this may be the case; it is carried too far if cricket matches are multiplied till they engross almost all the interests and much of the time of the boys during an important part of the year; yet it is certainly carried too far

if boys are encouraged to regard play as on the same level with work, or to imagine that they can make amends for neglecting their duty by the most industrious pursuit of pleasure. The importance which the boys themselves attach to games is somewhat greater, perhaps, than might reasonably be desired, but within moderate limits it is highly useful. It is the best corrective of the temptation to overstudy which acts upon a clever and ambitious boy, and of the temptation to saunter away time which besets an indolent one.

Swimming is taught at Eton, Westminster, and Shrewsbury. The desire to go on the river, which no boy is allowed to do till he has shown himself able to swim, operates at these schools as a sufficient inducement with a large number of boys. At Eton almost every boy learns to swim even if he does not row. It is much to be wished that every boy who goes to school should acquire the art.

Rifle-corps exist at Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Rugby, and Shrewsbury. The number of members fluctuates and appears to be kept up chiefly by the amusement of target-shooting, without which they would probably have died away. To make the drill in any manner compulsory would be fatal to such interest as the boys now take in it. Apart from such value as it possesses of fitting boys to enter the defensive force of the country, it is also of some use as affording to boys who do not care for cricket and do not row, a healthy and social employment for their leisure—in giving them, in short, something to do. It is entitled to higher consideration than a mere pastime and the school authorities are advised to give it all practicable and suitable encouragement.

Discipline. Monitorial System. Fagging.—In all the public schools, excepting such as are virtually day-schools, discipline and order are maintained partly by the masters, partly by the boys themselves. The power exerted for this purpose by boys over their school-fellows is, generally speaking, recognized by the masters, and regulated and controlled by custom and opinion. The grounds on which the monitorial system rests appear to be these. Small breaches of discipline and acts of petty oppression can not be effectually restrained by the unaided efforts of the masters without constant and minute interference and a supervision amounting to espionage, and the boys submit in these matters more cheerfully to a government administered by themselves; in every large school some boys will always possess authority over the rest, and it is desirable that their authority should not be that of mere physical strength, which is tyranny, nor that of mere personal influence, which may be of an inferior kind, but should belong o boys fitted by age, character, and position to take the highest place in the school; that it should be attended by an acknowledged responsibility, and controlled by established rules. On these grounds and in some degree from the force of tradition and habit, the system where it exists is, in general, much cherished and highly valued by both masters and boys, and is considered by some witnesses of great judgment and experience as indispensable to the efficient management of a large school.

There are objections, however, to any delegation, express or tacit, to school-boys, of authority to inflict punishment on their school-fellows. There is a risk lest it should be abused from defect of temper or judgment; lest it should make those intrusted with it imperious or tyrannical, or priggish and self-sufficient; lest boys, whose character makes them ill qualified to govern others, should be oppressed and discouraged by a responsibility to which they feel themselves unequal; and lest, if it should fall into unfit hands, it should become an instrument of positive evil. There is some risk also lest the Masters should, more than is safe or right, leave the discipline of the school to take care of itself, and incongruities, the correction of which forms part of their own duty, to be checked—ineffectually, perhaps, or perhaps not checked at all—by the senior boys. The power of punishment, when intrusted to boys, should be very carefully guarded, and the liberty of appeal to the Head Master should be always kept open, and it should be thoroughly understood that boys may avail themselves of that liberty without discredit and without exposing themselves to ill-usage. It is believed, however, that cases of abuse have been exceptional, and that by proper precautions they may be prevented from interfering seriously with the beneficial working of the system.

The system appears to have taken root very early in English schools. At Harrow and Rugby it seems to have been strengthened rather than impaired by time; at Eton, on the contrary, though it nominally survives, it has in practice almost ceased to exist except among the "collegers," and the opinion that it is unnecessary and undesirable is as strong at Eton, as the opposite opinion is at Harrow, Rugby, and Winchester. The case of Eton, indeed, shows that it is quite possible, under certain conditions, to administer a very great school without any actual delegation of authority to the boys themselves, yet without disorder, bullying, or gross laxity of discipline. How far it would be practicable at other schools, the experience of Eton does not determine. With respect to the principle itself of the monitorial system, we do not hesitate to express our conviction that it has borne excellent fruits, and done most valuable service to education. It has largely assisted to create and keep alive a high and sound tone of feeling and opinion, has promoted independence and manliness of character, and has rendered possible that combination of ample liberty with order and discipline which is among the best characteristics of our great English schools.

Closely allied to this subject is that of fagging, and in regard to this practice and to determine whether it is productive of bodily ill-usage, or is likely to be injurious to character, or is oppressive or troublesome to younger boys by encroaching on their hours of study or play, examinations were made of Masters, whose duty it is to know how it works, and of young men who have had experience of it both as fags and fag-masters, and of little boys from the foundation schools, where from the force of usage and tradition, fagging may reasonably be expected to exist in a

more systematic shape than elsewhere, and to retain more of its old roughness and severity.

The right to fag belongs at every school to a portion of the senior boys; the liability to be fagged attaches commonly to a portion only of the juniors. The duties of a fag are at some schools much lighter and more limited than at others; in their largest extent they embrace some special personal services to the boy to whom the fag is assigned, and some general services which he may be called on to render to the whole body of the masters, with "fielding," when required, at cricket, and compulsory attendance at some other games. Some of the services are such as would at the present day be performed by servants, had not the custom grown up of allowing them to be performed by fags. In some instances the compulsory attendance at games, which is far from being always an evil, is so enforced as to trench upon the fag's opportunities for play. But on the whole, and with some exceptions, we are satisfied that fagging, mitigated as it has been, and that considerably, by the altered habits and manners of the present day, is not degrading to the juniors, is not enforced tyrannically, and makes no exorbitant demand upon their time, and that it has no injurious effect upon the character of the seniors. The relation of master and fag is generally friendly, and to a certain though perhaps a slight extent one of patronage and protection, and it sometimes gives rise to lasting intimacies. It is an institution created by the boys themselves in the exercise of the liberty allowed to them, and is popular with them; and it is tacitly sanctioned by the Masters, who have seen the tyranny of superior strength tempered and restrained in this way by rule and custom till it has practically ceased to be a tyranny at all. It is only recommended that the practice be watched; that fags should be relieved from menial service, and that care should be taken that neither their time for lessons nor their time for play be unduly encroached upon.

The relation between masters and boys is closer and more friendly than it used to be, owing in some measure, probably, to the development of the tutorial system. Corporal punishment has at the same time diminished; flogging, which twenty or thirty years ago was resorted to as a matter of course for the most trifling offenses, is now in general used sparingly and applied only to serious ones. More attention is paid to religious teaching and more reliance placed on the sense of duty.

On the general results of public-school education as an instrument for the training of character we can speak with much confidence. Like most English institutions—for it deserves to rank among English institutions—it is not framed upon a preconceived plan, but has grown up gradually, and it has been by degrees that methods of discipline and internal government have been worked out by the Masters and by the boys, and that channels of influence have been discovered and turned to account. The magnitude and freedom of these schools make each of them, for a boy of from twelve to eighteen, a little world, calculated to give his character an education of the same kind it is destined afterwards to un-

dergo in the great world of business and society. The liberty, however, which is suited for a boy is a liberty regulated by definite restraints; and his world, the chief temptations of which arise from thoughtlessness, must be a world pervaded by powerful disciplinary influences, and in which rewards as well as punishments are both prompt and certain. The principle of governing boys mainly through their own sense of what is right and honorable is undoubtedly the only true principle; but it requires much watchfulness, and a firm, temperate, and judicious administration, to keep up the tone and standard of opinion, which are very liable to fluctuate, and the decline of which speedily turns a good school into a bad one. This system is one which is adapted for boys and not for children, and which should not be entered upon, as a general rule, till the age of childhood is past; neither perhaps is it universally wholesome for boys of every temperament and character, though we believe the cases to which it is unsuited are not very numerous. But we are satisfied, on the whole, both that it has been eminently successful, and that it has been greatly improved during the last thirty or forty years, partly by causes of a general kind, partly by the personal influence and exertion of Dr. Arnold and other great schoolmasters.

Religious Teaching and Influences.—At every school the boys are instructed in Scripture history and those who are advanced enough, in the Greek Testament. Time is given to religious teaching on Sundays, and to relieve them from the temptation to do other work upon that day, the first lesson at least on Monday morning is uniformly on a religious subject. At Westminster the whole forenoon of Monday is given to lessons on religious subjects, and at Winchester the Head Master reads the Greek Testament with his own classes on every morning. Questions testing Scriptural knowledge enter into the school examinations, and appear to have a fair amount of weight generally assigned to them. There is apparently a general feeling that religious instruction, though a matter eminently requiring to be handled with judgment and caution, should not be confined to the mere learning by heart of passages of Scripture and facts of sacred history, nor to the critical study of the Greek text of the New Testament, and an anxiety that the time given to this subject should not be employed listlessly nor mechanically.

The boys appear, generally speaking, to be very carefully prepared for confirmation and to receive this rite with becoming seriousness. Their attendance at the Holy Communion is almost universally left to their own sense of religious duty, and the proportion who attend from those who have been confirmed, is everywhere considerable. It is the general custom to have prayers in the boarding-houses—and we have the satisfaction of believing not only that boys are not disturbed or ridiculed whilst saying their private prayers, but that the omission to do this is the exception—probably a rare exception—not the rule. Yet it is at home even more than at school (because at home it may be done earlier and more effectually than at school) that religious motives and feelings should be implanted and a knowledge of the truths of religion acquired.

Financial Condition. Fees and Charges, &c.—The expenses of these schools consist chiefly in the maintenance, repair, and enlargement of the necessary buildings and accommodations, the sustenance of foundation scholars, and the support of the staff of teachers; and they are defrayed principally from payments made out of the foundation revenues, and from the charges for board and instruction. The principle apparently recognized as the measure of the school charges, though not perhaps consistently observed in practice, is that of raising, not as much money as parents can be induced to pay, but as much as will maintain an adequate staff of highly qualified teachers, beside defraying other expenses. The amount derived from the foundation is everywhere small compared with what is received from the parents of non-foundationers. The charges for board are sometimes separate from, but commonly blended with those for instruction; the charge for instruction has been added to, as fresh subjects or modes of teaching have been introduced, and is often broken into separate sums, to which different teachers are entitled. The total receipts of a Master who has a boarding-house are generally adequate, and often very ample, while others have often not sufficient for a fair remuneration. The gross receipts of the Head Masters have, from increase of numbers, become in some cases extremely large, subject to miscellaneous deductions and charges, more or less discretionary and ill-defined, while his net income does not always bear a just proportion to either the numbers or wealth of the school. The subject of the charges made to parents and the emoluments of the Masters needs revision, that both may be put upon a more simple and equitable footing. At several of the schools the Assistant Masters as a body, and in some cases the Head Masters, are underpaid. The total emoluments of the five Masters, forming the classical and mathematical staff at Shrewsbury, hardly amount altogether to the annual salary of a young classical assistant at Eton, and this is nearly half as much again as the whole income of the Head Master of Westminster or the Charter-house. It has been customary for the Head Master to engage such assistants as he required and to make his own terms with them and to fix the amount of their emoluments—usually consisting of sums paid out of his own pocket, such shares as he might assign to them of the tuition fees, and a portion of the profits of boarding-houses which they had his permission to open—while he reserved to himself such proportion of the school charges as he thought fit. While the Head Master should retain the power of appointing and dismissing his subordinates, it is deemed advisable that the power and responsibility of fixing their emoluments and his own should be held by the Governing Body.

Domestic and Sanitary Arrangements.—The school buildings themselves, even at the wealthier schools, are by no means all that could be desired. There is not unfrequently a want of suitable class-rooms, though this want is being gradually supplied. In the boys' bed-rooms there appears generally, with some exceptions, to be no want of space,

air, and appliances for cleanliness and comfort. At Eton it is usual for each boy to have a room to himself, in which he sleeps at night and sits by day, his small bedstead being folded up during the daytime. The rooms at Harrow contain sometimes one bed, sometimes two to five, the boys using the rooms by day as studies. At Rugby from two to sixteen boys sleep in a room, but every boy has assigned him a little study or a portion of one, no study holding more than three. The system of large bedrooms is generally in use at the other schools, the privilege of a study being given to a limited number of the upper boys. At each school the Masters are satisfied with the system actually adopted there, and the boys seem to be satisfied with it likewise. Each system has in fact its advantages.

The boarding-houses are as a rule kept by the Masters only. At Eton, however, nine of the thirty houses are still in the hands of the "dames." The scale of diet does not differ greatly at the different schools, though at some the boys have meat once and at some twice a day; and the boys seem to be generally satisfied with the quantity and quality of their food. Excellent and comfortable sanatoria, for the reception of boys so unwell as to require special care, different food, and quiet, have been built at Eton and Rugby. The boarding-houses which have been newly built are very carefully constructed and the internal arrangements of the old ones have in many instances been much improved. On the whole it may be said that as respects their domestic and sanitary arrangements, and the appliances for the health and comfort of the boys, these schools have fairly kept pace with the general advance which has been made in this matter within the last quarter of a century. But it is chiefly, no doubt, to the habits of hardy exercise which are encouraged everywhere that we have to attribute the fact that sickness appears to be rare everywhere and the general health of the boys to be good.

Holidays.—Except in two London schools, the whole time during which boys are at home, whether they go home twice or three times in the year, varies only from 14 to 16 weeks. The dates of the holidays differ materially in the different schools.

The London Schools.—Four of these schools, Westminster, the Charterhouse, St. Paul's, and Merchant Taylors', are situated in the metropolis. Their number of pupils is 690, of whom 188 are boarders. In point of endowment, in the provision made for instruction, and in the results of the teaching, these schools will bear comparison with any of the rest. In one respect, however, they stand at an obvious disadvantage. It is impossible for them to offer the same facilities for recreation and exercise as the schools situated in the country. Indeed, the boys at St. Paul's and Merchant Taylors' have no play-grounds at all. Again, the high value of land throws a great difficulty in the way of providing for the additional accommodation which boys now require and compels the managers to restrict their improvements within a narrow compass. It is generally thought, too, that a London school can not be so healthy as

one in the country, though the evidence does not appear to confirm this view. Owing to these causes the popularity of the London schools as boarding-schools has declined, and the Westminster and Charter-house schools, which are especially boarding-schools, have felt the adverse influences most strongly. It has been proposed to remove these institutions into the country, and it might be done with great advantage in many respects, but there are financial and other difficulties which may prevent the realization of the idea.

Summary of General Recommendations.

I. The Governing Bodies of the several colleges and schools should be reformed, so far as may be necessary, in order to render them thoroughly suitable and efficient for the purposes and duties which they are designed to fulfill.

II. The subsisting statutes and laws of the several colleges and schools, by which they respectively are, or legally ought to be, governed, should be revised under competent authority; rules and obligations which it is inexpedient to retain should be abrogated; new regulations should be introduced where they are required; and the Governing Bodies of each college and school should be empowered, where they do not already possess the power, to amend its statutes from time to time. The approval of some superior authority, such as the Queen in Council or the Visitor, may be required where the character of the foundation renders this desirable.

III. The Governing Body of each college and school should have the general management of the property and endowments of the college and school. They should have the appointment and dismissal of the Head Master, and should retain, where they now possess them, the same powers in respect of the second Master. They should be authorized to make general regulations for the government and administration of the whole school, including both foundation boys and boys not on the foundation, except in matters specially reserved to the Head Master. They should be especially empowered and charged to make such regulations as may from time to time be required on the following subjects:—

a. The terms of admission and the number of the school.

b. The general treatment of the foundation boys.

c. Boarding-houses; the rates of charge for boarding, the conditions on which leave to keep a boarding-house should be given, and any other matters which may appear to need regulation under this head.

d. Fees and charges of all kinds, and the application of money to be derived from these sources.

e. Attendance at divine service; chapel services and sermons, where the school possesses a chapel of its own.

f. The sanitary condition of the school, and of all places connected with it.

g. The times and length of the holidays.

h. The introduction of new branches of study, and the suppression of old ones, and the relative importance to be assigned to each branch of study.

It should be incumbent, however, on the Governing Body, before making regulations upon any of these subjects, or upon any subject affecting the management or instruction of the school, not only to consider attentively any representations which the Head Master may address to them, but to consult him in such a manner as to give ample opportunity for the expression of his views.

IV. The Governing Body should hold stated general meetings, one at least half-yearly, and special meetings when required. Provision should be made for summoning special meetings. Sufficient notice of every special meeting should be given to every member, and a notice sent of all business to be transacted. Minutes should be kept of the proceedings of every stated and special meeting. If any member absents himself from three-fourths of all the meetings in any two successive years, his office should be deemed vacant and his place filled up. The Governing Body should be empowered to defray out of the school fund the expenses of the meetings, including the traveling expenses of the governors attending them.

V. **The Head Masters** should have the uncontrolled power of selecting and dismissing assistant masters; of regulating the arrangement of the school in classes or divisions, the hours of school work, and the holidays and half-holidays during the school time; of appointing and changing the books and editions of books to be used in the school, and the course and method of study, (subject to all the regulations made by the Governing Body as to the introduction, suppression, or relative weight of studies;) of maintaining discipline, prescribing bounds, and laying down other rules for the government of the boys; of administering punishment, and of expulsion.

VI. The assistant masters, or a selected number of them representing the whole body, should meet on fixed days, not less often than once a month, under the title of a School Council, to consider and discuss any matter which may be brought before them by the Head Master, or any member of the Council, concerning the teaching or discipline of the school. The Head Master should preside, if present. The Council should be entitled to advise the Head Master, but not to bind or control him in any way, and should have the right of addressing the Governing Body whenever a majority of the whole Council may think fit. When the Council does not embrace the whole body of the assistants, the classical and mathematical masters and the teachers of modern languages and natural science respectively should be duly represented in it.

VII. In the selection of the Head Master and of the other masters, the field of choice should in no case be confined, either by rule or by usage equivalent to a rule, to persons educated at the school.

VIII. The classical languages and literature should continue to hold the principal place in the course of study.

IX. In addition to the study of the classics and to religious teaching, every boy who passes through the school should receive instruction in arithmetic and mathematics; in one modern language at least, which should be either French or German; in some one branch at least of natural science, and in either drawing or music. Care should also be taken to insure that the boys acquire a good general knowledge of geography and of ancient history, some acquaintance with modern history, and a command of pure grammatical English.

X. The ordinary arithmetical and mathematical course should include arithmetic so taught as to make every boy thoroughly familiar with it, and the elements of geometry, algebra, and plane trigonometry. In the case of the more advanced students it is desirable that the course should comprise also an introduction to applied mathematics, and especially to the elements of mechanics.

XI. The teaching of natural science should, whenever it is practicable, include two main branches, the one comprising chemistry and physics, the other comparative physiology and natural history, both animal and vegetable. A scheme for regulating the teaching of this subject should be framed by the Governing Body.

XII. The teaching of classics, mathematics, and divinity should continue during the whole time that each boy stays at school, (subject to Recommendation XIII.) The study of modern languages and that of natural science should continue respectively during the whole or a substantial part of the time, and the study of drawing and music should continue during a substantial part, at least, of the time.

XIII. Arrangements should be made for allowing boys, after arriving at a certain place in the school, and upon the request of their parents or guardians, to drop some portion of their classical work (for example, Latin verse and Greek composition) in order to devote more time to mathematics, modern languages, or natural science; or on the other hand, to discontinue wholly, or in part, natural science, modern languages, or mathematics, in order to give more time to classics or some other study. Care should be taken to prevent this privilege from being abused as a cover for idleness; and the Governing Body, in communication with the Head Master, should frame such regulations as may afford a sufficient safeguard in this respect. The permission to discontinue any portion of the school work should in each case rest with the Head Master, who, before exercising his discretion, should consult the boy's tutor (if he has one) and the master who has given him instruction in the study which he purposes to discontinue, should satisfy himself of the propriety of either granting or refusing

the application, and in the latter case should, either personally or through the tutor, communicate his reasons to the parents.

XIV. Every part of the course of study above described should have assigned to it a due proportion of the whole time given to study. A scale has been suggested above, (page 230.)

XV. Every part of the course should be promoted by an effective system of reward and punishment. When impositions in writing are set, they should be required to be fairly written, and their length should be regulated with a view to their requirement.

XVI. The promotion of the boys from one classical form to another, and the places assigned to them in such promotion, should depend upon their progress not only in classics and divinity but also in arithmetic and mathematics, and likewise, in the case of those boys who are studying modern languages or natural science, on their progress in those subjects respectively.

XVII. The Governing Body, in communication with the Head Master, should settle a scale of marks for this purpose; and the scale should be so framed as to give a substantial weight and encouragement to the non-classical studies. (*See* suggested scale, page 230.)

XVIII. Ancient history and geography should be taught in connection with the classical teaching, and also in lessons apart from it but in combination with each other. They should enter into the periodical examinations, and contribute to promotion in the classical forms. Prizes should be given for essays in English on subjects taken from modern history. On the manner and degree in which modern history should be taught, we refrain from laying down any general rule.

XIX. For instruction in arithmetic and mathematics, in modern languages and in natural science respectively, the school should be re-distributed into a series of classes or divisions wholly independent of the classical forms; and boys should be promoted from division to division in each subject, according to their progress in that subject, irrespectively of their progress in any other.

XX. The school list issued periodically should contain the names of all boys, separately arranged in the order of their merit and place in the classical school, and also once at least in the year, separately arranged in order of merit and place in the several schools of mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively.

XXI. In order to encourage industry in those branches of study in which promotion from division to division is rewarded by no school privileges, and confers less distinction than is gained by promotion in the classical school, it is desirable that prizes and distributions be conferred periodically:—First, for eminently rapid and well sustained progress through the divisions in the several schools of mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively;—Secondly, for the greatest proficiency in mathematics, modern languages, and natural science respectively, (*i. e.*, for the highest place in the divisions of these schools,) in proportion to age.

XXII. Special prizes should be given for proficiency in music and drawing, but these studies should not be taken into account in determining the places of the boys in the school.

XXIII. Every boy should be required, before admission to the school, to pass an entrance examination, and to show himself well grounded for his age in classics and arithmetic, and in the elements of either French or German.* It appears generally advisable that the examination in each subject should be conducted by one of the masters ordinarily teaching that subject.

XXIV. In schools where seniority or length of time during which a boy has remained in a particular form or part of the school has been considered a ground for promotion, no boy should be promoted on that ground unless he has passed such an examination in the work of the form into which he is to be promoted as proves that he is really fit to enter that form.

XXV. No boy should be suffered to remain in the school who fails to make reasonable progress in it. For this purpose certain stages of progress should be fixed by reference to the forms into which the school is divided. A maximum age should be fixed for attaining each stage; and any boy who exceeds this

* This last point is formally dissented from by Mr. Vaughan.

maximum, without reaching the corresponding stage of promotion, should be removed from the school. A relaxation of this rule, to a certain extent, might be allowed in cases where it clearly appeared that the boy's failure to obtain promotion was due to his deficiency in one particular subject, whilst his marks in other subjects would heve counterbalanced that deficiency had the system of promotion permitted it.

XXVI. The charges made to parents and the stipends and emoluments of the masters should be revised, with a view to put both on a more simple and equitable footing.

XXVII. The charges for instruction should be treated as distinct from the charges for boarding and for domestic superintendence. It should cover instruction in every subject which forms part of the regular course of study, and tutorial instruction, where all the boys receive it alike, as well as instruction in school. This charge should be uniform for all boys who are not on the foundation. For the instruction of every boy on the foundation a sum should be paid out of the revenues of the foundation when they admit of it, and this payment should supersede all statutory or customary stipends and other emoluments now received by any of the masters from that source.

XXVIII. The aggregate amount of the charges and payments for instruction should be considered as forming a fund which should be at the disposal of the Governing Body, and out of which stipends should be assigned to the Head Master and other masters, according to a scheme to be framed by the Governing Body. These stipends might be fixed, or fluctuating with the numbers of the school, or with the number of each tutor's pupils, as to the Governing Body might seem best in each case; and in fixing them, the profits to be derived from boarding should be taken into account, in the case of masters having boarding-houses. A small graduated payment or tax might also be imposed upon masters having boarding-houses, should this appear just and expedient to the Governing Body. Permission to keep a boarding-house should in future be given to masters only. Leaving fees should be abolished. Entrance fees, if retained, should be added to the instruction fund. It appears desirable that a reserve fund for building, for the establishment of prizes or exhibitions, and for other objects useful to the school, should be formed wherever this may conveniently be done in the judgment of the Governing Body. In introducing this system the Governing Body would, of course, have due regard to vested interests, and would have regard also to such considerations of convenience as might properly modify or defer the application of it to any particular school.

XXIX. The working of the monitorial system, where it exists, should be watched, and boys who may deem themselves wronged by any abuse of it should be able at all times to appeal to the Head Master. The power of punishment, when intrusted to boys, should be carefully guarded.

XXX. The system of fagging should be likewise watched. Fags should be relieved from all services which may be more properly performed by servants; and care should be taken that neither the time which a little boy has for preparing his lessons, nor the time which he has for play, should be encroached upon unduly.

XXXI. It is desirable that the Governing Bodies should, after communication with each other, endeavor to make the holiday times of their respective schools coincide as far as possible, so as to enable school-boys who are members of the same family, but at different schools, to be at home for their holidays together.

XXXII. The Head Master should be required to make an annual report to the governors on the state of the school, and this report should be printed. It is desirable that tabular returns for the year, substantially resembling those with which we have been furnished by the schools, should accompany or form part of the report.

Concluding Remarks.—We have considered, in the preceding remarks, the external government of these schools; their internal government; their course of study, which appears sound and valuable in its main elements, but wanting in breadth and flexibility—defects which destroy in many cases, and impair in all, its value as an education of the mind, and

which are made more prominent at the present time by the extension of knowledge in various directions, and by the multiplied requirements of modern life; their organization and teaching, regarded not as to its range, but as to its force and efficiency—and we have been unable to resist the conclusion, that these schools, in very different degrees, are too indulgent to idleness or struggle ineffectually with it, and that they consequently send out a large proportion of men of idle habits and empty and uncultivated minds; and their discipline and moral training, of which we have been able to speak in terms of high praise.

It remains for us to discharge the pleasantest part of our task, by recapitulating in a few words the advances which these schools have made during the last quarter of a century, and by noticing briefly the obligations which England owes to them—obligations which, were their defects far greater than they are, would entitle them to be treated with the utmost tenderness and respect.

It is evident that important progress has been made even in those particulars in which the schools are most deficient. The course of study has been enlarged; the methods of teaching have been improved; the proportion of masters to boys has been increased; the quantity of work exacted is greater than it was, though still in too many cases less than it ought to be. At the same time the advance in moral and religious training has more than kept pace with that which has been made in intellectual discipline. The old roughness of manners has in a great measure disappeared, and with it the petty tyranny and thoughtless cruelty which were formerly too common, and which used indeed to be thought inseparable from the life of a public school. The boys are better lodged and cared for, and more attention is paid to their health and comfort.

Among the services which they have rendered is undoubtedly to be reckoned the maintenance of classical literature as the staple of English education, a service which far outweighs the error of having clung to these studies too exclusively. A second, and a greater still, is the creation of a system of government and discipline for boys, the excellence of which has been universally recognized, and which is admitted to have been most important in its effects on national character and social life. It is not easy to estimate the degree in which the English people are indebted to these schools for the qualities on which they pique themselves most—for their capacity to govern others and control themselves, their aptitude for combining freedom with order, their public spirit, their vigor and manliness of character, their strong but not slavish respect for public opinion, their love of healthy sports and exercise. These schools have been the chief nurseries of our statesmen; in them, and in schools molded after them, men of all the various classes that make up English society, destined for every profession and career, have been brought up on a footing of social equality, and have contracted the most enduring friendships, and some of the ruling habits, of their lives; and they have had perhaps the largest share in molding the character of an English

gentleman. The system, like other systems, has its blots and imperfections; there have been times when it was at once too lax and too severe —severe in its punishments, but lax in superintendence and prevention; it has permitted, if it has not encouraged, some roughness, tyranny, and license; but these defects have not seriously marred its wholesome operation, and it appears to have gradually purged itself from them in a remarkable degree. Its growth, no doubt, is largely due to those very qualities in our national character which it has itself contributed to form; but justice bids us add that it is due likewise to the wise munificence which founded the institutions, under whose shelter it has been enabled to take root, and to the good sense, temper, and ability of the men by whom, during successive generations, they have been governed.

VII. THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SOCIETY.

The American School Society deserves a name and a place in the history of public-school education in this country. No society was more needed at the time of its formation; and it helped to indicate the paths and the methods of school improvement.

Though founded at Boston in 1834, it may properly be said to have had its origin at Andover nearly two years earlier. At that time Rev. S. R. Hall, the author of "Lectures on School-Keeping," had the charge of a school in Andover which he called a "Teachers' Seminary." Some of the friends of Mr. Hall and of the seminary—moved, no doubt, by Mr. Hall's representations of its necessity—met on the 13th of July, 1832, and formed what they termed a "School Agents' Society," whose object was to promote the cause of education, especially in common schools, by school agencies and circuit teachers. Of this Society Samuel Farrar, Esq., was president; S. R. Hall, vice-president; W. P. Jewett, recording secretary; and Josiah Holbrook, treasurer—with a board of seven directors, embracing Prof. Emerson and W. C. Woodbridge, and corresponding secretaries in nearly every State in the Union. A second meeting was held in Andover on the 6th of August, when a full report was made of the plans, objects, and advantages of the Society. That report says:—"Our desire is to excite public attention to the importance of practical education—to lead the young to appreciate their ability to educate themselves—to carry the benefits of Infant School instruction to every child and bear the key of knowledge among teachers, inducing them to regard their vocation as one of the liberal professions, and securing among them union of object and effort—to encourage young men of promise to become teachers and agents, and to procure funds for the purpose of aiding such to educate themselves, especially if they intend to exercise their profession in the valley of the Mississippi—these all are objects of permanent importance in the opinion of the Board. * * * In short, this Association may act as a Lay Education Society, a Foreign and Home School Society, which shall supply destitute portions

of our own and other countries with the blessings that follow in the train of our Free Schools. * * * Of the *means* to be employed in effecting our object, the press will be the most powerful instrument we can employ. Associations auxiliary to our own—the coöperation of instructors—the establishment of seminaries for teachers—the formation of circuit schools where a course of uninterrupted instruction can not be given—the employment of traveling agents and lecturers, will all be put in requisition."

A third meeting, as a "Convention of Teachers," was held at Andover, April 10th, 1833, and continued in session nine days. Three lectures were usually given each day, and two meetings held for discussion. Lectures were delivered by S. R. Hall, chairman of the Convention, upon "*The qualifications of teachers;*" "*The objects for which a teacher should labor;*" "*The responsibility of teachers;*" "*The best method of commencing a school;*" "*School Discipline;*" "*Arithmetic;*" "*Natural Philosophy;*" and "*Electricity;*"—by Mr. Adams, former principal of the Andover Latin School, three lectures on "*The art of teaching;*"—by J. Holbrook, on "*The use of School Apparatus,*" and on "*The wants of the West;*"—by Mr. Z. Tenney, of the Teachers' Seminary, on "*Teaching Arithmetic;*"—by Mr. Loomis, on "*The absurdities of the English Alphabet,*" and on "*The general management of schools;*"—by Mr. Hibbert, on "*Geology;*"—by F. A. Barton, of the Teachers' Seminary, on "*Circuit Schools, and the best method of conducting them;*"—by Mr. Taylor, of the Theological Seminary, on "*Natural History;*"—by Mr. Foster, on "*The condition and prospect of schools in the Southern States;*"—by Mr. De Witt, on "*Improving the memory;*"—by Mr. Richmond, on "*Education in Greece;*"—and by Mr. Smith, on "*The Carstairian system of penmanship.*" Among the topics discussed were the following:—"*Defects of common schools and the best means for remedying them;*"—"*Evils resulting from the neglect of moral instruction in common schools;*"—"*Best methods of communicating moral instruction in schools;*"—"*Introduction of Moral Philosophy and other new branches into schools;*"—"*Mode of teaching the alphabet, and spelling, and reading;*"—"*Impropriety of attempting to teach too many things at once;*"—"*Character and comparative merits of school-books;*"—"*Unpardonable neglect of ventilation in school-rooms;*"—"*Methods of securing the influence of females in the cause of education;*"—"*Importance of cultivating early habits of systematic benevolence in school children;*"—"*Mutual coöperation of schools, even in distant States, and facilities for producing it;*"—"*Utility of town and*

county conventions of teachers;"—"*Importance of having teachers well instructed in their professional duties;*"—"*Importance of making the business of teaching a profession;*"—"*Usefulness and facility of establishing Circuit Schools;*"—"*Importance of the American School Agents' Society, and its claims upon the community.*"

A resolution was passed recommending the employment forthwith of six or eight agents, to go through New England and New York in the months of May and June following and call conventions of teachers and other friends of education in every county. The Convention also set on foot a plan for supporting for six months an agent in Greece for the purpose of awakening parents to the importance of educating their children.

The *first annual meeting* of this Society was held at Andover, Aug. 5th, 1833; S. R. Hall, chairman. The Board of Directors presented an able and valuable report, in which they state that they had circulated nearly 1,000 circulars, setting forth the objects and means of the Society, and that a successful attempt had been made testing the practicability of *Circuit Schools.* Six of these schools had been maintained in four towns of Massachusetts, with the result of confirming the Board in the opinion that such schools "may be made an instrument of no common power for benefiting the young and especially the adult population in the oldest and most densely settled States." Several gentlemen (J. O. Taylor, C. E. Beeman, F. A. Barton, W. A. Alcott, Mr. Newton, and others) had been employed as temporary agents, and had visited about 150 towns in the New England States and New York, examining schools, addressing assemblies, establishing lyceums, calling county conventions, and forming associations of teachers—exploring the country and carrying information home to every part of it, so far as they had gone, and arousing the attention of parents and teachers to the defects of their schools and the best means of improving them. In most cases sufficient contributions had been made to defray the agents' expenses. The report also contains much information, collected by the agents and from other sources, respecting the condition and wants of schools in the several States. Among the meetings which had been held by the agents of the Society, was one in New York city, in July, presided over by the mayor, and addressed by Mr. J. O. Taylor, as agent, by the mayor and other gentlemen. Mr. Woodbridge, editor of the "Annals," says:—"We believe no meeting on this subject has excited greater interest or done more to arouse the community from that unaccountable apathy which prevails, than this meeting in New York." The time of the meeting

was occupied in discussing the operations, duties, and interests of the Society, in which part was taken by W. C. Woodbridge, Rev. Mr. Lindsley, Rev. Mr. Shipherd, of Ohio, F. A. Barton, S. R. Hall, Prof. G. B. Emerson, and others.

In order to secure more prompt and extended effort, it was considered expedient that the seat of the Society's operation should be transferred from Andover to Boston, and on the call of a committee appointed for the purpose, of which Prof. E. A. Andrews was chairman, a meeting was held in Boston, May 29th, 1834, for the purpose of attempting such measures in behalf of common schools as might be more efficient than any thing which had hitherto been done. At this meeting Daniel Noyes, Esq., of Boston, presided and Prof. B. B. Edwards was secretary, and upon motion of Mr. Woodbridge that a society be formed for the promotion of common school education, the AMERICAN SCHOOL SOCIETY was organized and a constitution adopted, in which the object of the Society was declared to be "to promote elementary education in our own and in foreign countries." On the 12th of June the Society elected its officers. Francis Wayland, D. D., was chosen president, Dr. W. A. Alcott, recording secretary, and Daniel Noyes, treasurer. The number of vice-presidents elected was very great, as they were not limited in number, and it was deemed expedient to enlist as extended and general an interest as possible in the objects of the Society. Sixty-three were then chosen and more were afterwards added, selected from nearly every part of the Union. A board of twelve directors was also appointed, chiefly from Boston and vicinity. No corresponding secretary was chosen at first, nor any agent appointed. Mr. Beeman, who had previously acted in behalf of the School Agents' Society, was employed for a time and performed many valuable services.

The Society held frequent meetings during the summer of 1834 and every reasonable effort was made, that could well have been made without money or men, to set its wheels in motion. W. C. Woodbridge and W. A. Alcott were the soul of it, though other able men often attended its meetings and spoke fluently in its behalf, among whom were Profs. E. A. Andrews and B. B. Edwards, Rev. Dr. Sharp, Rev. Louis Dwight, Rev. Jacob Abbott, and Rev. Dr. R. Anderson.

At a subsequent meeting, Mr. Noyes having resigned the office of treasurer, S. H. Walley was appointed in his stead, and six special vice-presidents were also elected, viz., W. Reed, D. Sharp, Rufus Choate, Richard Fletcher, Heman Humphrey, and T. H. Gallaudet.

A circular, bearing date Aug. 2d, 1834, was prepared by a committee consisting of Messrs. Woodbridge, Edwards, and Dwight, and sent to all the remote officers of the Society, as well as to other friends of education in different parts of the country. This circular refers to the educational destitution existing throughout the country, to assist in remedying which the Society had been formed. Its first step would naturally be to employ agents in exploring and making known the state of common education in the country, in organizing local associations for the same purpose, and in exciting the interest of the citizens and legislators in the subject. Should the Society gain the public confidence, a wide field would open before it, but the only point hitherto decided was to *begin* without delay in the work of providing the best means of education for the rising generation. Those to whom the circular was sent were solicited to aid in procuring and disseminating information in regard to schools, and in promoting the object in view, and to communicate documents and facts in relation to schools and educational movements, and to give expression of their views as to the best mode of accomplishing the objects of the Society.

This circular was favorably received and by many was duly responded to. But the American School Society, important and philanthropic as was its object—well-timed as it was and however well-directed by its officers—met with difficulties. It had no means of procuring funds. The few agents it sent out—Mr. Beeman was the principal one—were obliged to provide for their own support and soon tired. Mr. Woodbridge and Mr. Alcott had other engrossing employments and though, in general, indefatigable in their labors, they could not do everything. And as a natural consequence, the Society languished and at length died.

NOTE.

For Memoir of

SAMUEL READ HALL, *see* Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. V., p. 373—388.
WILLIAM A. ALCOTT, " " " " " " IV., p. 629—656.
WILLIAM C. WOODBRIDGE, " " " " " " V., p. 81— 64.

VIII. SIR HENRY WOTTON.

[Compiled from Creasey's "*Eminent Etonians.*"]

Eton has never seen within her walls a more accomplished gentleman, in the best sense of the word, or a more judicious ruler, than she received in 1624, when Sir Henry Wotton became her Provost. He was born in 1568, at Bocton Hall in Kent, the family mansion of his father, Sir Robert Wotton. He was the youngest of four sons, and as such was destined to receive but a moderate income from his father; but he also received from him, what is far more valuable than all pecuniary endowments, an excellent education, worthy of the talents on which it was bestowed. His boyhood was passed at Winchester, and thence he removed, first, to New College, and subsequently to Queen's College, Oxford. He was highly distinguished at Oxford for his proficiency in all academical studies; while he at the same time made himself a master of modern languages; and he also displayed, on several occasions, the elegance of his genius in the lighter departments of literature. On his father's death, in 1589, he left England, and made the tour of France, Italy, Germany, and the Low Countries; and on his return, in 1596, he was chosen as Secretary to Queen Elizabeth's favorite, the Earl of Essex. On the fall of Essex, Wotton fearing to be implicated in the ruin of his patron, fled into France, whence he again went to Italy, and took up his abode at Florence. Soon after his arrival there, the Grand Duke of Tuscany having discovered, from some intercepted letters, a plot to poison James, King of Scotland, employed Wotton to go to Scotland secretly, and apprise that prince of his danger. Wotton assumed the name and guise of an Italian; executed his commission with great skill, and returned to Florence after having left a strong impression on the Scottish King of his learning, zeal, and diplomatic ability. On James' accession to the English throne, he sent for Wotton to court, gave him the honor of knighthood, and after pronouncing a high eulogium on him, declared his intention thenceforth to employ him as an ambassador.

Accordingly, during the greater part of James' reign, Sir Henry

represented his sovereign abroad. His first mission was to Venice, where he formed a close intimacy with the celebrated Paolo Sarpi, and had peculiar advantages of watching the refinements and devices of Italian policy during the contest that was then being carried on between the Roman See and the Venetians; in which the sagacious firmness of the most subtle of Aristocracies was pitted against the craft and intrigue of the Vatican.

Wotton returned from Venice in 1610, when he suddenly found his favor at court unexpectedly clouded. This arose from the discovery of a sentence which he had written at Augsburg, in his outward journey to Venice. As we possess a biography of Sir Henry, from the pen of his friend Izaak Walton, it is best in this and other parts of Sir Henry's career to adopt the quaint but expressive language of the old king of the anglers. Walton says:—

> At his [Sir Henry's] first going embassador into Italy, as he passed through Germany, he stayed some days at Augusta, where having been in his former travels well known by many of the best note for learning and ingeniousness, (those that are esteemed the vertuosi of that nation,) with whom he passing an evening in merriment, was requested by Christopher Flecamore to write some sentence in his Albo, (a book of white paper which for that purpose many of the German gentry usually carry about them,) Sir Henry Wotton consenting to the motion, took an occasion, from some accidental discourse of the present company, to write a pleasant definition of an embassador, in these very words:—
>
> "Legatus est vir bonus peregrè missus ad mentiendum Reipublicæ causâ."

Walton tries to represent this as an unlucky Latin translation of an English pun. Walton says that Sir Henry "could have been content that his Latin could have been thus Englished:—

> "An ambassador is an honest man sent to LIE abroad for the good of his country."

But the word *lie* (being the hinge upon which the conceit was to turn) was not so expressed in Latin as would admit (in the hands of an enemy especially) so fair a construction as Sir Henry thought in English. Yet as it was, it slept quietly among other sentences in this *albo* almost eight years, till by accident it fell into the hands of Jasper Scioppius, a Romanist, a man with a restless spirit and a malicious pen, who in his books against King James prints this as a principle of that religion professed by the King and his Embassador, Sir Henry Wotton, then at Venice; and in Venice it was presently after written in several glass windows, and spitefully declared to be Sir Henry Wotton's.

This coming to the knowledge of King James, he apprehended it to be such an oversight, such a weakness or worse in Sir Henry Wotton, as caused the King to express much wrath against him; and this caused Sir Henry Wotton to write two apologies, one to Velserus (one of the chiefs of Augusta) in the universal language, which he caused to be printed and given and scattered in the most remarkable places both of Germany and Italy, as an antidote against the venomous book of Scioppius; and another apology to King James, which were so ingenious, so clear, so choicely eloquent, that his Majesty (who was a pure judge of it) could not forbear at the receipt of it to declare publicly, *That Sir Henry Wotton had commuted sufficiently for a greater offense.*

And now, as broken bones well set become stronger, so Sir Henry Wotton did not only recover, but was much more confirmed in his Majesty's estimation and favor than formerly he had been.

It has been truly remarked, that old Izaak must be mistaken in

supposing that Sir Henry in this sentence only intended a poor English pun, and forgot that the Latin translation failed to convey his joke. Wotton, we may be sure, *thought* in Latin, when he wrote the words; and his jest was not without some sharp earnestness.

Indeed, Sir Henry's opinion of the position of an ambassador may be gathered from another anecdote which Walton relates of him:—

A friend of Sir Henry Wotton's, being desirous of the employment of an ambassador, came to Eton, and requested from him some experimental rules for his prudent and safe carriage in his negotiations; to whom he willingly gave this for an infallible aphorism:—

"That to be in safety to himself and serviceable to his country, he should always and on all occasions speak the *truth*. (It seems a State-paradox.) For, says Sir Henry Wotton, you shall never be believed; and by this means your truth will secure yourself, if you shall ever be called to any account; and 'twill also put your adversaries (who will still hunt counter) to a loss in all their disquisitions and undertakings."

Wotton, indeed, seems to have thought that all travelers, though not diplomatists, required some degree of Machiavellian skill. Milton, when about to leave England for his travels in France and Italy, obtained an introduction to Sir Henry, and received from him, among other directions, the celebrated precept of prudence—"*I pensieri stretti, ed il viso sciolto.*" "The thoughts reserved, but the countenance open."

After his first Venetian embassage, Wotton was employed by James in missions to the United Provinces, the Duke of Savoy, to the Emperor, and other German princes on the affairs of the unfortunate Elector Palatine. He was also twice again sent ambassador to Venice; and his final return from "that pleasant country's land" was not till James' death in 1624. Wotton thus passed nearly twenty years as a diplomatist in foreign courts, during which, as well as during his former travels—

Πολλῶν ἀνθρώπων ἴδεν ἄστεα καὶ νόον ἔγνω.

Wotton, like Ulysses, thus gained deep insight into the human mind, and also into the varying manners and conventional standards of right and wrong, which prevail among different men, and which the Latin poet indicates, when he translates the Homeric line by—

"Qui *mores* hominum multorum vidit et *urbes*."

This knowledge produced in Wotton, not the misanthropy which it too often has generated in men of a less kindly temperament, but a charitable spirit in dealing with each individual phase of human weakness, and a truly catholic love of goodness and of honesty, wherever found, and by whomsoever displayed. The patience which he eminently possessed, was sorely tried during the first year after his final return to England. Large sums were due to him from the state,

for his diplomatic expenses; he had been forced to sell his little patrimony; and the sordid cares of daily and domestic want were now pressing hard on him in the decline of life. In this strait he received from the Crown the Provostship of Eton, when it fell vacant in July, 1625. His feelings on obtaining it may best be expressed in the language of Walton, who, doubtless, had often heard them from Sir Henry's own lips.

It pleased God, that in this juncture of time the Provostship of his Majesty's College of Eton became void by the death of Thomas Murray, for which there were (as the place deserved) many earnest and powerful suitors to the king. Sir Henry, who had for many years (like Sisiphus) rolled the restless stone of a state employment, and knowing experimentally, that the great blessing of sweet content was not to be found in multitudes of men or business, and that a college was the fittest place to nourish holy thoughts, and to afford rest, both to his body and mind, which his age (being now almost threescore years) seemed to require; did therefore use his own, and the interest of all his friends, to procure it. By which means, and quitting the king of his promised reversionary offices, and a piece of honest policy, (which I have not time to relate,) he got a grant of it from his Majesty.

Being thus settled according to the desires of his heart, his first study was the statutes of the College; by which he conceived himself bound to enter into holy orders, which he did; being made deacon with convenient speed. Shortly after, as he came in his surplice from the church service, an old friend, a person of quality, met him so attired, and joyed him; to whom Sir Henry Wotton replied, "I thank God and the King, by whose goodness I now am in this condition; a condition, which that Emperor Charles the Fifth seemed to approve: who, after so many remarkable victories, when his glory was great in the eyes of all men, freely gave his crown, and the cares that attended it, to Philip his son, making a holy retreat to a cloisteral life, where he might by devout meditations consult with God, (which the rich or busy men seldom do,) and have leisure both to examine the errors of his life past, and prepare for that great day, wherein all flesh must make an account of their actions. And after a kind of tempestuous life, I now have the like advantage from 'Him that makes the outgoings of the morning to praise him;' even from my God, who I daily magnify for this particular mercy, of an exemption from business, a quiet mind and a liberal maintenance, even in this part of my life, when my age and infirmities seem to sound me a retreat from the pleasures of this world, and invite me to contemplation; in which I have ever taken the greatest felicity."

And now to speak a little of the employment of his times. After his customary public devotions, his use was to retire into his study, and there to spend some hours in reading the Bible, and authors in divinity, closing up his meditations with private prayer; this was, for the most part, his employment in the forenoon. But when he was once sat to dinner, then nothing but cheerful thoughts possessed his mind; and those still increased by constant company at his table, of such persons as brought thither additions both of learning and pleasure. But some part of most days was usually spent in philosophical conclusions. Nor did he forget his innate pleasure of angling; which he would usually call his idle time, not idly spent: saying, he would rather live five May months, than forty Decembers.

A common love of angling created and cemented the friendship between Sir Henry Wotton and Izaak Walton. We owe to it the exquisite biography which Walton wrote of his friend, and the collection of Sir Henry's works, which Walton edited after Wotton's death. The spot where the two friends loved to practice the patient art of the rod and line is well known, and deservedly honored. About a quarter of a mile below the college, at one of the most pic-

turesque bends of the river, there is, or was, an ancient eel fishery, called Black Pots.

One of the most exquisite passages in Walton's book on angling is devoted to the just praises of Sir Henry Wotton, and incorporates some poetry of the good Provost, which we may well believe to have been composed at Black Pots, and which also merits quotation for its beauty.

My next and last example shall be that undervaluer of money, the late Provost of Eton College, Sir Henry Wotton, a man with whom I have often fished and conversed, a man whose foreign employments in the service of this nation, and whose experience, learning, wit, and cheerfulness made his company to be esteemed one of the delights of mankind: this man, whose very approbation of angling were sufficient to convince any modest censurer of it, this man was also a most dear lover and frequent practicer of the art of angling; of which he would say, "'Twas an employment for his idle time, which was then not idly spent: for angling was after a tedious study a rest to his mind, a cheerer of his spirits, a diverter of sadness, a calmer of unquiet thoughts, a moderator of passions, a procurer of contentedness;" and that it "begat habits of peace and patience in those that professed and practiced it." Indeed, my friend, you will find angling to be like the virtue of humility, which has a calmness of spirit, and a world of other blessings attending upon it.

Sir, this was the saying of that learned man, and I do easily believe that peace and patience and a calm content did cohabit in the cheerful heart of Sir Henry Wotton; because I know that when he was beyond seventy years of age he made this description of a part of the present pleasure that possessed him, as he sat quietly in a summer's evening on a bank a-fishing; it is a description of the spring, which, because it glided as soft and sweetly from his pen, as that river does at this time, by which it was then made, I shall repeat unto you.

ON A BANK AS I SATE A-FISHING.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SPRING.

And now all Nature seemed in love,
The lusty sap began to move;
New juice did stir th' embracing vines,
And birds had drawn their valentines.
The jealous trout, that low did lie,
Rose at a well dissembled fly.
There stood my friend, with patient skill,
Attending of his trembling quill.
Already were the eaves possessed
With the swift pilgrim's daubed nest.
The groves already did rejoice
In Philomel's triumphing voice.

The showers were short; the weather mild;
The morning fresh, the evening smiled.

* * * * *

The fields and gardens were beset
With tulip, crocus, violet;
And now, though late, the modest rose
Did more than half a blush disclose.
Thus all looked gay, all full of cheer,
To welcome the new liveried year.

These were the thoughts that then possessed the undisturbed mind of Sir Henry Wotton.

Eton received great benefit from the zeal with which Sir Henry devoted himself to the improvement of the school; and from the sound sense and kindly spirit with which that zeal was accompanied. Boyle, in his autobiographical fragment, when he describes his own early education, speaks with praise and fondness of Wotton. He

says that Sir Henry was not only a fine gentleman himself, but skilled in making others so, and he expressly mentions that the school was then very much thronged with the young nobility of the land. Walton thus farther describes Sir Henry's life as Provost:—

He was a great lover of his neighbors, and a bountiful entertainer of them very often at his table, where his meat was choice, and his discourse better. He was a constant cherisher of all those youths in that school, in whom he found either a constant diligence, or a genius that prompted them to learning; for whose encouragement he was (besides many other things of necessity and beauty) at the charge of setting up in it two rows of *pillars*, on which he caused to be choicely drawn, the pictures of divers of the most famous *Greek* and *Latin historians, poets*, and *orators;* persuading them not to neglect *rhetoric*, because *Almighty God has left mankind affections to be wrought upon: And* he would often say, *That none despised eloquence, but such dull souls as were not capable of it.* He would also often make choice of observations, out of those *historians* and *poets:* but he would never leave the school without dropping some choice *Greek* or *Latin apothegm* or sentence; such as were worthy of a room in the memory of a growing scholar. He was pleased constantly to breed up one or more hopeful youths, which he picked out of the *school*, and took into his own domestic care, and to attend him at his meals; out of whose *discourse* and *behavior*, he gathered observations for the better completing of his intended work of *education;* of which, by his still striving to make the whole better, he lived to leave but part to posterity. He was a great enemy to *wrangling disputes on religion:* concerning which I shall say a little, both to testify that, and to show the readiness of his wit. Having in *Rome* made acquaintance with a pleasant *priest*, who invited him one evening to hear their vesper *music* at *church*, the priest seeing Sir Henry stand obscurely in a corner, sends to him by a boy of the choir this question writ in a small piece of paper: *Where was your religion to be found before Luther?* To which question Sir Henry Wotton presently under-writ: *My religion was to be found* then, *where yours is not to be found* now, *in the* written Word of God. To another that asked him, *Whether a Papist may be saved?* he replied, *You may be saved without knowing that. Look to yourself.* To another, whose earnestness exceeded his knowledge, and was still railing against the Papists, he gave this advice: *Pray, Sir, forbear till you have studied the points better; for the wise Italians have a proverb—He that understands amiss, concludes worse;* and take heed of thinking, *the farther you go from the Church of Rome*, the nearer you are to God.

Sir Henry's own letter to King Charles, in which he explains the motives through which he took holy orders, is preserved in the collection of his works, and it were injustice to his memory not to cite it:—

MY MOST DEAR AND DREAD SOVEREIGN,—

As I gave your Majesty foreknowledge of my intention to enter into the Church, and had your gracious approvement therein, so I hold it a sacred duty to your Majesty, and satisfaction to myself, to inform you likewise by mine own hand, both how far I have proceeded and upon what motives; that it may appear unto your Majesty (as I hope it will) an act of conscience and of reason, and not greediness and ambition. Your Majesty will be therefore pleased to know that I have lately taken the degree of Deacon; and so far am I from aiming at any higher flight out of my former sphere, that there I intend to rest. Perhaps I want not some persuaders, who, measuring me by their affections, or by your Majesty's goodness, and not by mine own defects or ends, would make me think that yet before I do die I might become a great prelate. And I need no persuasion to tell me, that if I would undertake the pastor function, I could peradventure by casualty, out of the patronages belonging to your Royal College, without further troubling of your Majesty, cast some good benefice upon myself, whereof we have

one, if it were vacant, that is worth more than my Provostship. But as they were strucken with horror who beheld the majesty of the Lord descending upon the Mount *Sinai*, so, God knows, the nearer I approach to contemplate His greatness, the more I tremble to assume any cure of souls even in the lowest degree, that were bought at so high a price. *Premant torcular qui vindemiarunt.* Let them press the grapes, and fill the vessels, and taste the wine, that have gathered the vintage. But shall I sit and do nothing in the porch of God's house, whereunto I am entered? God himself forbid, who was the supreme mover. What service, then, do I propound to the Church? or what contentment to my own mind? First, for the point of conscience, I can now hold my place canonically, which I held before but dispensatively, and withal I can exercise an archidiaconal authority annexed thereunto, though of small extent, and no benefit, yet sometimes of pious and necessary use. I comfort myself also with this Christian hope, that gentlemen and knights' sons, who are trained up with us in a seminary of Churchmen, (which was the will of the holy Founder,) will by my example (without vanity be it spoken) not be ashamed, after the sight of courtly weeds, to put on a surplice. Lastly, I consider that this resolution which I have taken is not unsuitable even to my civil employments abroad, of which for the most part religion was the subject; nor to my observations, which have been spent that way in discovery of the *Roman* arts and practices, whereof I hope to yield the world some account, though rather by my pen than by my voice. For though I must humbly confess that both my conceptions and expressions be weak, yet I do more trust my deliberation than my memory: or if your Majesty will give me leave to paint myself in higher terms, I think I shall be bolder against the faces of men. This I conceived to be a piece of my own character; so as my private study must be my theater, rather than a pulpit; and my books my auditors, as they are all my treasure. Howsoever, if I can produce nothing else for the use of Church and State, yet it shall be comfort enough to the little remnant of my life, to compose some hymns unto His endless glory, who hath called me, (for which His Name be ever blessed,) though late to His service, yet early to the knowledge of His truth and sense of His mercy. To which ever commending your Majesty and your royal action with most hearty and humble prayers, I rest,

Your Majesty's most devoted poor servant.

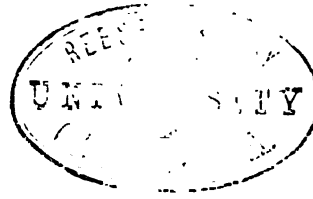
Sir Henry passed fifteen honorable, useful, and happy years as Provost of Eton. He designed several literary works, among which was a life of Luther, which, at the King's request, he laid aside in order to commence a history of England; but he made but little progress in this last-mentioned work. He also wrote some portions of an intended treatise on Education, which he styled *Moral Architecture*, to distinguish it from a former treatise, published by him, on *Architecture*, which was justly celebrated for the soundness of its principles and the grace of its style.

Sir Henry Wotton died on the fifth of December, 1639. He was never married. He was buried according to his desire, in the Chapel of the College, and on his monument was placed, as directed by him in his last will, the following inscription:—

Hic jacet hujus sententiæ primus Auctor:
DISPUTANDI PRURITUS ECCLESIARUM SCABIES.
Nomen alias quære.

Which may be rendered as follows:

Here lies the first Author of this sentence:
THE ITCH OF DISPUTATION WILL PROVE THE SCAB OF THE CHURCH.
Inquire his name elsewhere.



A PHILOSOPHICAL SURVEY OF EDUCATION:

OR, MORAL ARCHITECTURE.*

BY SIR HENRY WOTTON.

THE EPISTLE DEDICATORY TO THE KING.

May it please your Majesty—I need no other motive to dedicate this discourse, which followeth, unto your Majesty, than the very subject itself, so properly pertaining to your sovereign goodness: for thereby you are *Pater Patriæ*. And it is none of the least attributes wherewith God hath blessed both your royal person and your people, that you are so. On the other side, for mine own undertaking thereof, I had need say more. I am old and childless; and though I were a father of many, I could leave them nothing, either in fortune or in example. But having long since put forth a slight pamphlet about the *Elements of Architecture*, which yet hath been entertained with some pardon among my friends, I was encouraged, even at this age, to essay how I could build a *Man;* for there is a moral, as well as a natural or artificial *compilement*, and of better materials: which truly I have cemented together rather in the plain *Tuscan* (as our VITRUVIUS termeth it) than in the *Corinthian* form. Howsoever, if your Majesty be graciously pleased to approve any part of it, who are so excellent a judge in all kind of *structure*, I shall much glory in mine own endeavor. If otherwise, I will be one of the first myself that shall pull it in pieces, and condemn it to rubbage and ruin. And so, wishing your Majesty (as to the best of kings) a longer life than any of the soundest works of nature or art, I ever rest,

Your Majesty's most devoted poor subject and servant,

H. WOTTON.

A SURVEY OF EDUCATION.

THIS TREATISE (well may it now proceed) having since the first conception thereof, been often traversed with other thoughts—yea, and sometimes utterly forsaken—I have of late resumed again, out of hope (the common flatterer) to find at least some indulgent interpretation of my pains; especially in an honest endeavor of such public consequence as this is above all other. For if any shall think *Education* (because it is conversant about children) to be but a private and domestic duty, he will run some danger, in my opinion, to have been ignorantly bred himself. Certain it is, that anciently the best composed estates did commit this care more to the magistrate than to the parent; and certain likewise, that the best authors have chosen rather to handle it in their politics, than in their economics. As both writers and rulers well knowing what a stream and influence it hath into government. So great indeed, and so diffusive, that albeit good laws

* Reprinted from the Third Edition of *Reliquiæ Wottonianæ*. London, 1672.

have been reputed always the nerves or ligaments of human society, yet are they (be it spoken with the peace of those grave professors) no way comparable in their effects to the rules of good nurture; for it is in civil, as it is in natural plantations, where young tender trees (though subject to the injuries of air, and in danger even of their own flexibility) would yet little want any after-underpropings and shoarings, if they were at first well fastened in the root.

Now my present labor will (as I foresee) consist of these pieces:

First, There must proceed a way how to discern the natural capacities and inclinations of children.

Secondly, Next must ensue the culture and furnishment of the mind.

Thirdly, The moulding of behavior, and decent forms.

Fourthly, The tempering of affections.

Fifthly, The quickening and exciting of observations and practical judgment.

Sixthly, and the last in order, but the principal in value, being that which must knit and consolidate all the rest, is the timely instilling of conscientious principles and seeds of religion.

These six branches will, as I conceive, embrace the whole business; through which I shall run in as many several chapters or sections. But before I launch from the shores, let me resolve a main question which may be cast in my way: whether there be indeed such an infallible efficacy, as I suppose, in the care of nurture and first production; for if that supposal should fail us, all our anchorage were loose, and we should but wander in a wide sea.

Plutarch, I remember to the same purpose, in the first of his Tractates, which place this subject well deserved, endeavoreth by sundry similitudes, wherein that man had a prompt and luxurious fancy, to show us the force of Education; all which, in sooth, might have been well forborne, had be but known what our own countrymen have of late time disclosed among their magnetical experiments. There they tell us, that a rod or bar of iron having stood long in a window, or elsewhere, being thence taken, and by the help of a cork or the like thing being balanced in water, or in any other liquid substance where it may have a free mobility, will bewray a kind of unquietude and discontentment till it attain the former position. Now it is pretty to note, how in this natural *theorem* is involved a moral conclusion of direct moment to the point we have in hand.

For if such an unpliant and stubborn mineral as iron is above any other, will acquire by mere continuance a secret appetite, and (as I may term it) an habitual inclination to the site it held before, then how much more may we hope, through the very same means, (*education* being nothing else but a constant plight and *inurement*,) to induce by custom good habits into a reasonable creature? And so, having a little smoothed my passage, I may now go on to the *chapters*.

1. TOUCHING THE SEARCH OF NATURAL CAPACITIES AND INCLINATIONS.

Of the two things propounded in this chapter, I must begin with *capacities:* for the manurement of wits is like that of soils, where before either the pains of *tilling*, or the charge of *sowing*, men use to consider what the mould will bear, heath or grain. Now this, peradventure at the first view, may seem in children a very slight and obvious inquiry; that age being so open and so free, and yet void of all art to disguise or dissemble either their appetites or their defects. Notwithstanding, we see it every day and every where subject to much error; partly by a very pardonable facility in the parents themselves, to over-prize their own

children, while they behold them through the vapors of affection, which alter the appearance, as all things seem bigger in misty mornings. Nay, even strangers, and the most disinterested persons, are yet, I know not how, commonly inclined to a favorable conceit of little ones; so cheap a thing it is to bestow nothing but hope. There is likewise on the other side, as often failing by an undervaluation; for, in divers children, their ingenerate and seminal powers (as I may term them) lie deep, and are of slow disclosure; no otherwise than in certain vegetables, which are long before they shoot up and appear, and yet afterwards both of good and great increase; which may serve to excite care, and to prevent despair in parents: for if their child be not such a speedy spreader and brancher, like the vine, yet perchance he may prove *proles tarde crescentis olivæ*, and yield, though with a little longer expectation, as useful and more sober fruit than the other. And, I must confess, I take some delight in these kind of comparisons; remembering well what I have often heard my truly noble and most dear nephew, Sir Edmund Bacon, say, out of his exquisite contemplations and philosophical practice: that Nature surely (if she be well studied) is the best *moralist*, and hath much good counsel hidden in her bosom.

Now here then will lie the whole business, to set down beforehand certain signatures of hopefulness, or *characters*, (as I will rather call them, because that word hath gotten already some entertainment among us,) whereby may be timely descried what the child will prove in probability. These *characters* must necessarily be either impressed in the outward person, like stamps of nature, or must otherwise be taken from some emergent act of his mind; wherein of the former sort:

The first is that which first incurreth into sight; namely, the child's color or complexion, (as we vulgarly term it,) and thence perchance some judgment of the predominant humor.

The next is the structure and conformation of the limbs.

And the third is a certain spirituous resultance from the other two, which makes the countenance.

The second kind of these *characters* (which are rather mental than personal) be of such variety (because minds are more active than bodies) that I purpose, for the plainest delivery, to resolve all my gatherings touching both kinds into a *rhapsody* of several observations; for I dare not give them the authoritative title of *aphorisms*, which yet, when I shall have mustered them, if their own strength be considered rather in troop than singly, as they say, by pole, may perchance make a reasonable moral *prognostic*.

The Observations.

There are in the course of human life, from our cradles upward, certain periods or degrees of change, commonly (as the ancients have noted) every seven years, whereof the two first *septenaries*, and half of the third, or thereabouts, I will call the obsequious age, apt to imbibe all manner of impressions; which time of the suppleness of obedience is to be plied by parents, before the stiffness of will come on too fast.

There is no complexion, or composition in children, either privileged from bad proof, or prejudiced from good. Always I except prodigious forms, and mere natural impotencies, which are unmanageable *in toto genere*, and no more to be cultivated than the sands of *Arabia*.

More ordinary imperfections and distortions of the body in figure, are so far from excluding all hope, that we usually see them attended with some notable compensation one way or other, whereof our own time hath produced with us no slight example in a great minister of state, and many other.

I am yet willing to grant, that generally in nature the best outward *shapes* are also the likeliest to be consociated with good inward *faculties;* for this conclusion hath somewhat from the *Divine Light:* since God himself made this great *world* (whereof *man* is the little *model*) of such harmonious beauty in all the parts, to be the receptacle of his perfectest creature.

Touching such conjectures as depend on the complexions of children: albeit I make no question but all kinds of wits and capacities may be found under all *tinctures* and *integuments;* yet I will particularly describe one or two with some preference, though without prejudice of the rest.

The first shall be a *palish clearness*, evenly and smoothly spread, not over-thin and washy, but of a pretty solid consistence; from which equal distribution of the *phlegmatic humor*, which is the proper allay of fervent blood, I am wont to hope (where I see it) will flow a future quietude and serenitude in the affections, and a discreet sweetness and moderation in the manners; not so quick perchance of conceit, as slow to passion, and commonly less inventive than judicious; howsoever, for the most part, proving very plausible, insinuant, and fortunate men.

The other is, the pure sanguine *melancholic tincture*, wherein I would wish five parts of the first to three of the second; that so there may be the greater portion of that which must illuminate and enrich the fancy, and yet no scant of the other, to fix and determine the judgment; for surely the right natural definition of a wise habit is nothing else but a plentifulness and promptness in the storehouse of the mind, of clear imaginations well fixed.

Marcilius Ficinus (the deep *Florentine Platonic*) increaseth these proportions, requiring eight to two in the foresaid humors, and withal adding two more of pure choler. But of that I shall speak more among the inward motions, purposely here forbearing it, where I only contemplate the superficial appearance.

In the outward frame and fabric of the body, which is the next object after complexion, an erect and forward stature, a large breast, neat and pliant joints, and the like, may be good significants of health, of strength, or agility, but are very foreign arguments of wit. I will therefore only say somewhat of the *head* and *eye*, as far as may conduce to my present scope.

The head in a child I wish great and round, which is the capablest figure, and the freest from all restraint and compression of the parts; for since in the section of bodies we find man, of all sensible creatures, to have the fullest brain to his proportion, and that it was so provided by the Supreme Wisdom, for the lodging of the intellective faculties, it must needs be a silent character of hope, when, in the *economical* providence of nature, (as I may term it,) there is good store of roomage and receipt where those powers are stowed: as commonly we may think husbanding men to foresee their own plenty, who prepare beforehand large barns and granaries. Yet *Thucydides* (anciently one of the excellentest wits in the learnedst part of the world) seems (if *Marcellinus* in his life have well described him) to have been somewhat taper-headed, as many of the *Genoeses* are at this day in common observation, who yet be a people of singular sagacity: yea, I call not impertinently to mind, that one of my time in *Venice* had wit enough to become the civil head of that grave *republic*, who yet for the littleness

of his own natural head was surnamed *Il Donato Testolino*. But the obtrusion of such particular instances as these are unsufficient to disauthorize a note grounded upon the final intervention of nature.

The *eye* in children (which commonly let them roll at pleasure) is of curious observation, especially in point of discovery; for it loveth, or hateth, before we can discern the heart; it consenteth, or denieth, before the tongue; it resolveth, or runneth away, before the feet: nay, we shall often mark in it a dullness, or apprehensiveness, even before the understanding. In short, it betrayeth in a manner the whole state of the mind, and letteth out all our fancies and passions as it were by a window. I shall therefore require in that organ, without poetical conceits, (as far as may concern my purpose, be the color what it will,) only a settled vivacity, not wandering, nor stupid; yet, I must confess, I have known a number of dull-sighted, very sharp-witted men.

The truth is, that if in these external marks, or signatures, there be any certainty, it must be taken from that which I have formerly called *the total resultance:* by which, what I mean, I shall more properly explain in the third *section*, when I come to handle the general air of the person and carriage. I will now hasten to those more solid and conclusive *characters*, which, as I have said, are emergent from the mind, and which oftentimes do start out of children when themselves least think of it; for, let me tell you, nature is *proditorious*.

And first I must begin with a strange note: that a child will have *tantum ingenii quantum iræ;* that is, in my construction, as much wit as he hath waywardness. This rule we have cited by a very learned man,* somewhere out of *Seneca*, and exemplified by *Angelus Politianus*, (none of the meanest critics,) who, writing the life of *Pietro de Medici*, concludeth, that he was likely to prove a wise man, because he was a froward boy. Truly I have been many times tempted to wonder, notwithstanding the value of these authors, how so disordinate a passion, seated in the heart and boiling in the blood, could betoken a good constitution of the brain, which, above any other, is, or should be, the coldest part. But because all sudden motions must necessarily imply a quick apprehension of the first stirring cause, and that the dullest of other creatures are the latest offended, I am content for the present to yield it some credit.

We have another, somewhat of the same mould, from *Quintilian*, (whom I have ever thought, since any use of my poor judgment, both the elegantest and soundest of all the *Roman pens*,) that a child will have *tantum ingenii quantum memoriæ*. This, I must confess, will bear a stronger consequence of hope; for memory is not only considerable as it is in itself a good retention, but likewise as it is an infallible argument of good attention—a point of no small value in that age which a fair orange or a red apple will divert.

There is yet another in the same writer, and in the same place, where he handleth this very *theme*—How to descry capacities: that parents should mark whether their children be naturally apt to imitate; wherewith certainly all fine fancies are caught, and some little less than ravished. And we have a tradition of *Quintilian* himself, that when he saw any well-expressed image of grief, either in *picture* or *sculpture*, he would usually weep; for, being a teacher of oratory in school, he was perhaps affected with a passionate piece of *art*, as with a kind of *mute eloquence*. True it is indeed, which a great master† hath long before taught us, that man is of all creatures the most mimical, as a kind of near adjunct

* Capnio. † Aristotle in Rhetoricis.

to reason, arguing necessarily in those that can do it well, whether it be in *gestures*, in *styles*, in *speech*, in *fashion*, in *accents*, or howsoever, no shallow impression of similitudes and differences; about which, in effect, is conversant the whole wisdom of the world.

Besides these, I would wish parents to mark heedfully the witty excuses of their children, especially at suddens and surprisals; but rather to mark than pamper them, for that were otherwise to cherish untruth: whereof I shall speak more in the *final section*.

Again are to be observed not only his own crafty and pertinent evasions, but likewise with what kind of jests, or pleasant accidents, he is most taken in others; which will discover the very degree of his apprehension, and even reach as far as to the censuring of the whole nations, whether they be flat and dull, or of quick capacity; for surely we have argument enough at this day to conclude the ancient *Greciane* an ingenious people; of whom the vulgar sort, such as were haunters of *theaters*, took pleasure in the conceits of *Aristophanes;* reserving my judgment to other place upon the filthy obscenities of that and other authors, well arguing among Christians, when all is said, that the devil is one of the wittiest.

Again, it shall be fit to note, how prettily the child himself doth manage his pretty pastimes. This may well become an ordinary parent, to which so great an emperor as *Augustus* descended in the highest of his state, and gravest of his age, who collected (as *Suetonius* tells us) out of all the known world, especially from the *Syrians* and *Moors*, (where, by the way, we may note who were then reputed the sharpest nations,) little boys of the rarest festivity, to play before him at their ordinary sports. And indeed there is much to be noted, worthy of a sadder judgment in the wiliness of that age.

Again, I would have noted in children, not only their articulate answers, but likewise certain smiles and frowns upon incident occasions; which, though they be dumb and light passions, will discover much of that inward power which moveth them, especially when withal they lighten or cloud the whole face in a moment.

Lastly, let not his very dreams be neglected; for, without question, there is a great *analogy* between those apprehensions which he hath taken by day into his fancy, and his nocturnal impressions; particularly in that age which is not yet troubled with the fumes and cares of the world, so as the soul hath a freer and more defecated operation. And this is enough for the disclosing of a good capacity in the popular way which I have followed, because the subject is general.

Now for the second part of this chapter, touching inclinations: for after we know how far a child is capable, the next will be to know unto what course he is naturally most inclined. There must go before a main research, whether the child that I am to manage be of a good nature or no; as the same term is vulgarly taken, for an ingenious and tractable disposition: which being a fundamental point, and the first root of all virtuous actions, and though round about in every mother's mouth, yet a thing which will need very nice and narrow observation, I have spent some diligence in collecting certain private notes, which may direct this inquiry.

First, therefore, when I mark in children much solitude and silence, I like it not, nor any thing born before his time, as this must needs be in that sociable and exposed age, as they are for the most part. When, either alone or in company, they sit still without doing of any thing, I like it worse; for surely all dispositions

to idleness, or vacancy, even before they grow habits, are dangerous; and there is commonly but a little distance in time between doing of nothing, and doing of ill.

APHORISMS OF EDUCATION.

Time is the plainest legend, and every day a leaf is turned.

If we look abroad, we shall see many proceed yearly out of the schools of experience, whereas few, in comparison, are commended unto degrees by us: indeed the multitude of those schools infinitely exceeding our numbers; but especially because the means which they follow are far more obvious and easy. Libraries and lectures profiting none, but such as bring some measure of understanding with them; but the occurrents of the world being easily entertained by the weakest capacities, assisted only with common sense: neither therefore is this legend of time to be contemned by those whose wits are more pregnant, or studies furnished with greatest choice. The students of common law manifest the benefit arising from the use thereof; who, as by reading their year books they recover the experience by former ages: so by daily repair to the courts of justice, they suffer nothing of the present to pass unobserved. And I note, that whereas foreign universities (in conferring degrees) regard merely the performance of some solemn exercise, ours further require a certain expense of time, supposing (as I conceive) that howsoever exercise of form may be deceitfully dispatched of course, yet that he who lives some space among the assiduous advantages and helps of knowledge, (except he be of the society of the Antipodes, who turn night into day, and take no notice of what is done,) can not choose but receive so much upon ordinary observation, as may make him master of some art; which frequent opportunities, as they happily add something to those who are but idle lookers on, so, no doubt, they must advance perfection in those who are more studiously observant; every day presenting their judgments with matters examinable by the precepts they read, and most producing to their inventions, occurrents fit for further inquiry.

Every nature is not a fit stock to graft a scholar on.

The *Spaniard* (that wrote the *Trial of Wits*) undertakes to show what complexion is fit for every profession. I will not disable any for proving a scholar, nor yet dissemble that I have seen many happily forced upon that course to which by nature they seemed much indisposed. Sometimes the possibility of preferment prevailing with the credulous, expectation of less expense with the covetous, opinion of ease with the fond, and assurance of remoteness with the unkind parents, have moved them, without discretion, to engage their children in adventures of learning, by whose return they have received but small contentment. But they who are deceived in their first designs deserve less to be condemned, as such who (after sufficient trial) persist in their willfulness are no way to be pitied. I have known some who have been acquainted (by the complaints of governors, clamors of creditors, and confessions of their sons) what might be expected of them, yet have held them in with strong hand, till they have desperately quit, or disgracefully forfeited the places where they lived. Deprived of which, they might hope to avoid some misery, if their friends, who were so careful to bestow them in a college when they were young, would be so good as to provide a room for them in some hospital when they are old.

He seldom speeds well in his course, that stumbles at his setting forth.

I have ever been unwilling to hear, and careful not to utter, predictions of ill-success; oracles proceeding as well from superstitious ignorance, as curious learning: and what I deliver in these words, occasioned by examples past, I desire may be applied for prevention, rather than prejudice to any hereafter. To the same effect I heard a discreet censor lesson a young scholar, negligent at his first entrance to the elements of logic and philosophy, telling him that a child starved at nurse would hardly prove an able man. And I have known some who attended with much expectation at their first appearing, have stained the maidenhead of their credit with some negligent performance, fall into irrecoverable dislike with others, and hardly escape despair of themselves. They may make a better excuse, but not hope for more favor, who can impute the fault of their inauspicious attempts somewhere else—a circumstance necessarily to be considered where punishment is inflicted; but where reward is proposed for worth, it is as usually detained from those who could not, as from these who cared not to deserve it.

The way to knowledge by epitomes is too straight; by commentaries, too much about.

It is sufferable in any to use what liberty they list in their own manner of writing, but the contracting and extending the lines and sense of others, if the first authors might speak for themselves, would appear a thankless office; and if the readers did confer with the originals, they would confess they were not thoroughly or rightly informed. Epitomes are helpful to the memory, and of good private use, but set forth for public monuments, accuse the industrious writers of delivering much impertinency, and divert many to close and shallow cisterns, whose leisure might well be acquainted with more deep and open springs. In brief, what I heard sometimes spoken of *Ramus*, I believe of those thrifty compendiums: they show a short course to those who are contented to know a little, and a sure way to such whose care is not to understand much. Commentaries are guilty of the contrary extreme, stifling the text with infinite additions, and screwing those conceits from the words, which, if the authors were set on the rack, they would never acknowledge. He who is discreet in bestowing his pains, will suspect those places to be desert and barren, where the way can not be found without a guide; and leave curiosity in inquest of obscurities, which, before it receive content, doth lose or tire itself with digressions.

Discretion is the most universal art, and hath more professors than students.

Discretion, as I understand it, consists in the useful knowledge of what is fit and comely; of necessary direction in the practice of moral duties, but most esteemed in the composing and framing civil behavior: men ordinarily being better content to be dishonest, than to be conscious to themselves that they are unmannerly. Few study it, because it is attained rather by a natural felicity, than by any endeavor or pains; and many profess it, presuming on sufficiency to censure others; and as unable to discern themselves, concerning their own defects, as unaccustomed to be rightly informed. It little concerns men indifferent what we do in that kind; and our friends are either nothing offended therewith, or unwilling to offend us with their relation: our enemies seldom speak of it in our hearing, and when we hear, we as hardly believe them.

They who travel far, easily miss their way.

Travel is reputed a proper means to create men wise, and a possible to make them honest, because it forces circumspectness on those abroad, who at home are nursed in security; and persuadeth good behavior and temperance to such, who (far from friends and means) are willing to have little to do with the lawyer or physician. Men coming into other countries, as if born into a strange world, with some discretion above them, which teacheth both to distrust others, and keep themselves sober, and to shift off those homely fashions which nature and custom in their years of simplicity had put on them. But these effects are not general, many receiving more good in their bodies by the tossing of the ship, whilst they are at sea, than benefit in their minds by breathing in a foreign air when they come to land. Yet they are as desirous men should observe they have traveled, as careful in their travels to observe nothing; and therefore if they be not able to make it known by their relation and discourse, it shall appear by their clothes and gesture. Some attain to greater perfection, being able to show at what charge they have seen other places, by their excellency in some other rare vices, or irregularity in strange opinions. As the times are, he is commended that makes a saving voyage, and least discredits his travels, who returns the same man he went.

Somewhat of a gentleman gives a tincture to a scholar; too much stains him.

He who advised the philosopher (altogether devoted to the Muses) sometimes to offer sacrifice at the altars of the Graces, thought knowledge to be imperfect without behavior, which experience confirms, able to show, that the want thereof breeds as much disrespect to many scholars with the observers of ceremonies, as improper affectation moves distaste in some substantial judgments. Indeed slovenliness is the worst sign of a hard student, and civility the best exercise of the remiss; yet not to be exact in the phrase of compliment, or gestures of courtesy, the indifferent do pardon to those who have been otherwise busied; and rather deride, than applaud such, who think it perfection enough to have a good outside, and happiness to be seen amongst those who have better; pleasing themselves more in opinion of some proficiency, in terms of hunting or horsemanship, which few that are studious understand, than they blush to be known ignorant in that which every man ought to know. To which vanity I have known none more inclined than those whose birth did neither require, nor fortunes encourage them to such costly idleness; who at length made sensible by necessity, haply have the grace to repent, but seldom times the gift to recover

Books and friends are better received by weight than number.

The necessities of life do warrant multitude of employments, and the variety of natures excuse the diversity of delights; but to my discretion that course seems most desirable, whose business occasions no further trouble, nor leisure requires other recreations than may indifferently be entertained with books and friends. They are indeed happy who meet with such whom they may trust in both kinds; and undoubtedly wise, that can well apply them: the imperfect apprehension and misuse never producing any good effect. For so we see capacious understandings (by continual inquiry and perusal of all sorts of authors) thrive no better in their knowledge than some men of good disposition (addicted generally to acquaintance) are gainers by the reckoning, when they cast up their expense

of time. The hunger of the one breedeth a consumption, and the other's thirst not determining but by some humorous disease; nay, they who seem to respect choice, sometimes err perniciously; which the Frenchman observed, who maintained his country was much the worse by old men's studying the venom of policy, and young men's reading the dregs of fancy. And it is manifest that in our little commonwealth of learning, much disparagement is occasioned, when able spirits (attracted by familiarity) are inflamed with faction, and good natures (carried away with the stream of more pleasant company) are drowned in good fellowship.

Love that observes formality is seated rather in the brain than in the heart.

By formality, I mean something more than ceremony and compliment, (which are the gesture and phrase of dissemblers,) even a solemn reverendness, which may well consist with honesty; not but that I admire a constant gravity, which upon no assurance will bewray the least imperfection to any: but confess, I am far from suspecting simplicity, which (careful to observe more real duties towards all) is bold to trespass in points of *decorum* amongst some, which without blushing could not be confessed to others. A sign, from whence the greatest reasoner draws an argument of good affection, which (as divine charity covers many offenses) in the experience of common humanity is content to dispense with. And although policy shows it to be the safest course to give advantage to none, yet an ingenuous nature thinks that he is scarce able to distinguish betwixt an enemy and a friend, that stands wholly upon his own guard.

An enemy is better recovered by great kindness, than a friend assured.

There are some relics of goodness found even in the worst natures, and out of question seeds of evil in those who are esteemed best; whence it may appear less strange, that hearts possessed with rancor and malice are overcome with beneficence, and minds otherwise well qualified prove sometimes ungrateful; the one forced to confess satisfaction received far more than was due; the other, to acknowledge a debt of greater value than they are able to pay: howsoever, smaller courtesies seem not visible, great ones inducing an obligation upon public record.

The sincerest liberality consists in refusing, and the most innocent thrift in saving.

The bestowing of gifts is more glorious than the refusing of bribes; because gifts are commonly delivered in public, whereas men use not to confess what they owe, or offer what they ought not, before witnesses. But in true estimation, it is as honorable a virtue not to receive, as to disperse benefits; it being of greater merit wholly to abstain from things desirable, than after fruition to be content to leave them; as they who magnify single life prefer virginity much before widowhood. Yet some (in whom this kind of bounty is little observed) are unworthily censured for keeping their own, whom tenderness how to get honestly teacheth to spend discreetly; whereas such need no great thriftiness in preserving their own, who assume more liberty in exacting from others.

Commendations proceeding from subtlety, captive the object; from simplicity, the author.

There is a skill to purchase, and pay debts only with fair words, drawing on good offices, and requiting them with commendations; the felicity whereof hath

made flattery the most familiar rhetoric, a leaving the old method of persuasion, by insinuating the worth of him who desires to receive, and with more ease raising a self-conceit in the man who is apt to swallow such light bribery, and not often indisposed to digest unthankfulness so curiously seasoned. But it is no great inconvenience that kindness should be bestowed *gratis*, or upon cheap conditions; the loss is, when men of plain meaning adventure on the exchange and use of this coin, who, forward to profess their belief, image the credit of their wisdom on the behavior of such, whose actions are not within their power, and become bound in suretyship, without the help of a scrivener: which inconsiderate affection makes many earnest speakers in defense of injuries done to others, and silent patients of wrongs unexpectedly befalling themselves; desire to make good their error, pressing their tongues to so unjust service; or care to dissemble it, debarring them from the general liberty of poor complaint.

Expectation prepareth applause with the weak, and prejudice with the stronger judgments.

The fashion of commending our friends' abilities before they come to trial, sometimes takes good effect with the common sort, who, building their belief on authority, strive to follow the conceit of their betters; but usually amongst men of independent judgments, this bespeaking of opinion breeds a purpose of stricter examination; and if the report be answered, procures only a bare acknowledgment; whereas, if nothing be proclaimed or promised, they are perhaps content to signify their own skill in testifying another's desert: otherwise great wits, jealous of their credit, are ready to suppress worth in others, to the advancing of their own, and (if more ingenuous) no farther just than to forbear detraction; at the best rather disposed to give praise upon their own accord, than to make payment upon demand or challenge.

The testimony of sufficiency is better entertained than the report of excellency.

The nature of some places necessarily requires men competently endowed, but where there is choice none think the appointment to be a duty of justice bound to respect the best desert: nay, the best conceive it a work of free bounty, which men of mean qualities are likely to acknowledge, and the worldly make it a business of profit, unto which the most deserving are least apt to subscribe. But besides these unlucky influences from above, this cross success may be occasioned either by the too great confidence of those who hope to rise, or the jealous distrust of such as are already raised, whilst they too much presuming on their own desert, neglect all auxiliary strength, these suspecting some diminution to their own, stop the passage of another's worth; that being most certain, *Alterius virtuti invidet, qui diffidit suæ.*

He that appears often in the same place, gets little ground in the way to credit.

Familiar and frequent use, which makes things (at first ungrateful) by continuance pleasing or tolerable, takes away the luster from more excellent objects, and reduceth them from the height of admiration, to the low degrees of neglect, dislike, and contempt; which were not strange, if it wrought only among the vulgar, whose opinion (like their stomachs) is overcome with satiety, or men of something a higher stage, the edge of whose sight is abated and dulled by long gazing; but the same entertainment is given by the judicious and learned, either because they observe some defects, which at first sight are less visible; or the actors in this

kind betray weakness in their latter attempts, usually straining so high at first, that they are not able to reach again in the rest; or by this often obtrusion not required, discover a good conceit of their own graces; and men so well affected to themselves are generally so happy as to have little cause to complain of corivals.

The active man riseth not so well by his strength, as the expert by his stirrup.

They that climb towards preferment or greatness by their own virtue, get up with much ado and very slowly; whereas such as are raised by other means, usually ascend lightly and appear more happy in their sudden advancements, sometimes by the only strength of those who stand above, exercising their power in their dependents commonly by subordinate helps and assistance, which young men happily obtain from the commendations of friends, old men often compass by the credit of their wealth, who have a great advantage in that they are best able to purchase, and likely soonest to leave the room.

Few men thrive by one only art, fewer by many.

Amongst tradesmen of meaner sort, they are not poorest whose shop windows open over a red lattice; and the wealthiest merchants employ scriveners for security at home, as much as factors for their advantage abroad, both finding not more warrantable gains by negotiating with the industrious, than profitable returns by dealing with unthrifts. The disposition of the time hath taught this wisdom to more ingenuous professions, which are best entertained when they come accompanied with some other respects, whence preciseness is become a good habit to plead in, and papistry a privy commendation to the practice of physic, contentious zeal making most clients, and sensual superstition yielding the best patients. They who are intent by diverse means to make progress in their estate, can not succeed well, as he that would run upon his hands and feet makes less speed than one who goes as nature taught him; the untoward moving of some unskilful parts, hindering the going forward of those which are better disposed.

It is good to profess betimes, and practice at leisure.

There is a saying, *that the best choice is of an old physician, and a young lawyer:* the reason supposed, because where errors are fatal, ability of judgment and moderation are required; but where advantages may be wrought upon, diligence and quickness of wit are of more special use. But if it be considered who are generally most esteemed, it will appear that opinion of the multitude sets up the one, and the favor of authority upholds the other; yet in truth, a man's age and time are of necessary regard, such of themselves succeeding best, who in these or any other professions, neither defer their resolutions too long, nor begin their practice too soon; whereas ordinarily, they who are immaturely adventurous, by their insufficiency hurt others; they who are tedious in deliberation, by some improvidence hinder themselves.

Felicity shows the ground where industry builds a fortune.

Archimedes, the great engineer, (who, in defending *Syracuse* against *Marcellus*, showed wonderful experiments of his extraordinary skill,) was bold to say, *that he would remove the world out of his place, if he had elsewhere to set his foot.* And truly I believe so far, that otherwise he could not do it: I am sure,

so much is evident in the architecture of fortunes; in the raising of which the best art or endeavor is able to do nothing, if it have not where to lay the first stone; for it is possible with the like skill to raise a frame when we have matter, but not to create something out of nothing: the first being the ordinary effect of industry, this only of divine power. Indeed, many from very mean beginnings have aspired to very eminent place, and we usually ascribe it to their own worth, which no doubt in some is great; yet as in religion we are bound to believe, so in truth the best of them will confess, that the first advantage was reached out merely by a divine hand, which also, no doubt, did always assist their after endeavors. Some have the felicity to be born heirs to good estates, others to be made so beyond their hopes. Marriage (besides the good which oftentimes it confers directly) collaterally sometimes helps to offices, sometimes to benefices, sometimes to dignities. Many rise by relation and dependence, it being a happy step to some, to have fallen on a fortunate master, to some on a foolish, to some (few) on a good. There are divers other means, of which, as of these, I am not so fit to speak, but truly considered, they are all out of our own power, which he that presumeth most can not promise himself; and he that expects least, sometimes attains.

X. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

PROCEEDINGS FOR 1864.

PREFATORY NOTE.

THE official record, or Journal of the Proceedings of the Sixth Session, or FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING of the National Teachers' Association, held at Ogdensburg, N. Y., on the 10th, 11th and 12th of August, 1864, and such of the Addresses, Lectures, and Papers read during the session, as were received by the Committee of Publication up to this date, are printed in pamphlet form for distribution among the members who have paid to the Treasurer the annual fee of one dollar required by the Constitution.

Additional copies can be obtained by members, or others, for fifty cents per copy, on application to the undersigned.

The Committee were not successful in their efforts to obtain an abstract of the proceedings of the several State Teachers' Associations for 1864, to be published in this pamphlet, in pursuance of a vote of the National Association at Ogdensburg. They are authorized by the Editor of the American Journal of Education to state, that if the president, or any other officer of each of these Associations, will coöperate with him, he will prepare, before the next annual meeting, a history of all the principal Associations, National and State, which have been formed for the promotion of education in the United States.

D. N. CAMP,

In behalf of the Committee of Publication.

New Britain, Conn., December 10th, 1864.

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* The folios are in continuation of the Proceedings of 1864.

† The Committee are indebted to the Editor of the American Journal of Education for this Memoir and Portrait.

XI. METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS BEFORE THE AMERICAN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION,

At Ogdensburg, New York, August 10th, 1864,

BY W. H. WELLS,

President of the Association.

We have abundant cause for devout gratitude, that notwithstanding our country has suffered another year of desolating war, we are again permitted to assemble in quietude and peace, for the purpose of discussing the great interests that underlie the whole fabric of our existence as a free nation.

Many of those who shared with us in these counsels one year ago, have gone forth in obedience to their country's call, and are now in the field imperiling their lives in defense of the Constitution and the Union; and others have already sealed their devotion to these high interests by the sacrifice of their lives. All honor to our brave brethren in the field. Most nobly and worthily do they testify to the patriotism and loyalty of our profession, and most generously have they gone forth as our representatives, to fight and bleed in our behalf. All honor to those of our brethren who have already fallen in our stead. Their heroic deeds and their noble self-sacrifice challenge our admiration and demand of us a tribute of undying gratitude. May their loss teach us new lessons of patriotic devotion to our country, and may we learn from this costly sacrifice to place a still higher value upon our existence as a free and undivided people.

The objects for which the National Teachers' Association was established have been very fully set forth in the able address of Mr. Russell, at the first meeting, in Philadelphia, and in the addresses of several of my predecessors in office.

The American Institute of Instruction had its birth in New England, and its home is there. It has often been tempted to emigrate farther west; and about the time when it became "one and twenty," it did actually break away from the old messuage, and venture as far away as Troy, taking good care, however, to keep on the east side of the Hudson, as near as possible to the limits of the old homestead. Here the coy adventurer received every kind attention.

The accomplished mayor of the city extended to him the hearty greetings of the Trojans, and he was most affectionately welcomed to that far-famed Ladies' Seminary which has so long been associated with the honored name of Emma Willard. My good friend Philbrick and others before me well remember that delightful dinner at her elegant mansion, those pleasant drives in her carriage, and those delectable soirees, in which the talented and accomplished Mrs. Willard shone with all the splendor of Elizabeth Hamilton or Lady Montague. But notwithstanding all these attractions of wit and beauty, and the most abundant enjoyment of the very nectar of life among the hospitable Trojans, the adventurer returned to his native air, and no courtly invitations, no fascinating charms have ever again been able to divert him away from the hills of his New England home. There he stands, in all the strength and beauty of manhood, a monument of educational progress and of educational power.

The National Teachers' Association occupies a position entirely different from that of any other existing organization. It is the offspring of the various local organizations of the country, and acts in harmony and coöperation with all of them.

On this our seventh anniversary we have come to the fartherest limit of extra New England soil, to hold our sixth annual session. Though we have planted our standard in the Empire State, we do not intend to put on any imperial airs. Most heartily and deferentially do we bow to the grand patriarch of all American Educational Associations, the American Institute of Instruction. Many of us have taken special care, while providing ourselves with tickets to the National meeting, to have also a coupon attached which will enable us to attend the meeting of the American Institute at Portland, where we hope to enjoy the inspiring and healthful influences of that time honored educational fountain.

Various modifications in the organization and exercises of the National Teachers' Association have, from time to time, been suggested, some of which deserve our special consideration.

1. A very general desire has been expressed by the members of the Association, that the character of the exercises should be somewhat modified, and that more of our time should be devoted to practical educational papers and discussions, without any attempt to provide a special intellectual entertainment by a programme of set lectures. The exercises of the present meeting are arranged in conformity with this recommendation.

2. Another proposed change, which has met with considerable

favor, relates to the frequency of our sessions. By the original constitution, the meetings were to be held biennially, but the word *biennially* was changed to *annually* at the first meeting of the association after its organization. It is now proposed to return to the original purpose, and so amend the constitution that the meetings may hereafter be held only once in two years. It is essential to the full and complete success of the Association that every portion of the educational field should be represented at its meetings. Every State now has its own local Association. In New England, the American Institute of Instruction holds an annual session of three days. There are also numerous Teachers' Institutes and other educational gatherings, which draw largely upon the time and pecuniary resources of teachers. Under these circumstances, it is hardly to be expected that even the most earnest and devoted educators will present themselves every year at a National meeting, which requires thousands of miles of travel, and makes large demands upon their time and means. If the meetings were held biennially, they would secure a more certain attendance from all sections of the country, and it is believed they would also produce richer and more abundant fruit.

3. A third modification has been suggested, which in the estimation of some of our members would add greatly to the efficiency of the Association. It is this: that a portion of each session should be devoted to the consideration of questions of common interest to all classes of educators; and that during a portion of each session the Association should be divided into several sections, each section engaging in the discussion of questions in which only a particular class of educators are directly interested. Thus editors of educational journals might constitute one section, devoting their time to questions relating to editorial labors; college officers another section; school superintendents another; High School teachers another; Grammar School teachers another; primary teachers another; etc. This modification would not require any change in the constitution. An experiment might first be tried by devoting a single half day to sectional exercises. If the experiment proved successful, these exercises might be increased at pleasure; if unsuccessful, they might be abandoned.

I turn now to the most important object of the National Association—*educational advancement*. We live in an age of educational progress. Greater improvements have been made in educational methods, since the establishment of the American Journal of Edu-

cation in 1826, by William Russell, than during any ten previous centuries combined. In methods of primary instruction, greater improvements have been introduced in this country during the last ten years, than during any previous century. But the field of improvement is by no means exhausted. Errors in discipline, in instruction, in organization, still abound; and while it is the appropriate work of all educational Associations to strive for the removal of these errors and the introduction of better systems and methods, it is emphatically our mission to labor for the accomplishment of this great end. It is not enough that we bring together the ripe fruits of all the different local Associations, and combine them in one rich feast for the enjoyment of all who may attend these meetings. We have a more important work than this to accomplish. We must devise, originate, invent. We must make constant incursions into regions which are as yet only partially explored. We must exercise the utmost sagacity in discriminating between true and false improvements, and guard with jealous care against all injurious experiments with erroneous and impracticable educational schemes. Standing on the high platform of all the experiences and improvements of the past, it is our privilege and duty to rise still higher, and unless we do this, our Association fails to accomplish its highest mission.

Passing from these general remarks upon the organization and office of the National Teachers' Association, I desire now to invite your attention to a few hints in relation to a single branch of school instruction. The more I observe the prevailing systems of instruction in English grammar, the more I am convinced that we need important changes in our methods of teaching "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly."

It is all-important that pupils should become thoroughly acquainted with the structure and usages of the language, and learn to discriminate accurately between correct and incorrect forms of expression, and this part of grammar is generally well taught already; but this is by no means the highest object to be sought. Every teacher knows full well that a pupil may be a very good *parser*, and yet not be able to write a half dozen sentences correctly; that he may be able to *analyze* difficult examples in prose and verse, and yet be very deficient in the art of conversation; that he may have the whole grammar book by heart, and yet not be able to make a respectable speech. We need to spend more time in cultivating *a command of language; the power of expression; the ability to speak and write with correctness and ease.*

If we analyze the sources from which we derive our ability to use language correctly, we shall find that less than one-tenth of this skill is acquired by the ordinary study of grammar from a text-book. It is chiefly gained by joining with others in conversation; by listening to the language of others wherever it is heard, and then imitating what we hear, or endeavoring to improve upon it; by reading good authors and learning from them the best forms and modes of expression, and then making these forms and modes our own by embodying them in written language—by reading and hearing, and especially by actual conversation and writing.

I am aware that most teachers give some degree of attention to the language employed by their pupils in the ordinary exercises of the school; and the general introduction of object-teaching has proved an important auxiliary in teaching the use of language. It is also true that the practice of requiring pupils to write sentences, abstracts, reviews, etc., has increased ten-fold during the last ten or fifteen years; and most of the grammars now in use require frequent written and oral exercises, illustrating and embodying the principles taught. The value of these improvements can not be over estimated. They are all steps in the right direction; but it is still true that "the art of speaking" receives comparatively little direct attention in school exercises, and "the art of writing" far less than its importance demands.

Grammar is too generally regarded as an end, whereas it is only a means. The great object to be attained, is not the mastery of a text-book in grammar, but the acquisition of language. The time will never come when analysis and parsing will be dispensed with; but the time will surely come when instruction in "the art of speaking" will consist mainly of lessons which embrace *actual speaking;* of exercises designed to cultivate the art of conversation, of narration, and other forms of speech, by constant and careful practice in the use of these forms; when lessons in "the art of writing" will consist mainly of exercises in the *practice* of writing, under the special guidance and direction of the teacher; and when analysis and parsing will find their appropriate place as collateral aids in connection with the daily living exercises in the use of the English tongue. There is now an almost universal demand for increased *practicalness* in education, and I have the fullest confidence that the improvements to which I have alluded, will be continued and increased, till one-half of the time which is now consumed in the study of English grammar, will furnish twice the fruit which we now realize.

Changes of this nature should be introduced gradually and with great caution. But if teachers and pupils will everywhere keep constantly before them the desired end; if teachers will strive earnestly and faithfully to adapt their instructions to this end; and if they will employ frequent test examinations, not merely nor primarily to ascertain the pupils' knowledge of the forms and rules of grammar, but chiefly to learn what progress they are making in the art of using language with freedom and accuracy; then will these improvements be introduced as rapidly as they can be properly assimilated.

The details of the exercises to be employed must in a great degree be left to the ingenuity and good sense of teachers; and yet there are many teachers who would not know how to set themselves at work in introducing these changes without tangible rules and directions, and the presentation of model exercises; and instruction that is left to accident or chance is too often neglected altogether. Instruction in the use of language, to be effective must be systematic. The principles involved should be carefully digested, and the methods deduced from them should be fully presented and illustrated in all our school grammars. I am strongly inclined to say that I believe the unpretending little volume entitled "*Grammar of Composition*," which is really what its name implies, is better adapted to impart a knowledge of the language than any of the more elaborate grammars now in use; but I suppose it would be in bad taste, and so I will recall the observation.

I do not propose here to attempt an exhaustive discussion of this subject, and will close with a few practical hints embodying what appear to me to be some of the best methods now in use, with additional suggestions in the same direction.

1. Let it be an unvarying rule that whenever pupils learn a principle in grammar, they must fasten it in the mind by embodying it in a written word, or sentence, or paragraph; or by an extemporaneous oral example; or by both. Let them also select from their reading-books, or from some other source, copious examples illustrating the same principle, and bring them to the recitation. This direction is virtually given in many of the grammars, but in a majority of cases, its execution is exceedingly formal and defective. What we now need is that teachers and pupils shall be brought to feel that more than half the value of a recitation in the principles of grammar consists in the original illustrations. If teachers could once be brought to regard themselves as derelict in duty when they fail to draw from their pupils such illustrations as will show that

they have not only learned the rules but fully comprehend them, one of the great mistakes in teaching grammar would soon disappear from the schools.

2. Let the written reviews and abstracts of the pupils be regarded as a part of the regular exercises in grammar. Let them be brought to the recitation, and there subjected to a careful application of the laws of speech. If the papers are numerous, a portion only may be selected for this purpose. Those found particularly defective, should afterwards be re-written. Written exercises not only lose much of their value when this rule is neglected, but they often became the very means of originating and confirming erroneous habits and practices.

In marking the value of all written exercises, whether reviews, or abstracts, or other papers, the language employed should be taken into account as one of the main points requiring the care and attention of the pupil.

3. Another direction of special importance is one which relates to the language of pupils at recitation and in all their intercourse with the teacher and with each other on the school premises. Let it be distinctly and fully understood that one of the chief objects, not of the grammar lesson alone, but of school life, is the formation of a correct and appropriate style of speaking and writing. Let every pupil understand and feel that he is expected to use the best language he can command, on all occasions. Let no inelegant, or inaccurate, or incomplete expression be allowed to pass unnoticed. Even the hours of recess may be turned to good account in the accomplishment of this object. Critics may be appointed who shall collect some of the best examples in every variety of style that are heard during the day, on the play-ground, or elsewhere, as well as examples that are inaccurate and objectionable. These examples, with such as may have been specially noticed by the teacher, will not only form the basis of an exceedingly profitable lesson but a kind and judicious use of them by the teacher may be made to exert an important influence in correcting bad habits and cultivating good ones.

To give efficiency and value to these critical reviews of the language of school life they should by all means be taken into account in summing up the daily written record of the scholarship of the pupils. There is no branch of school instruction in which the influence of a permanent written record can be made to accomplish better results than in connection with these general and miscellaneous lessons in the use of language.

4. The most difficult and perhaps the most important step of improvement required, in teaching the use of language, is that which relates to the art of conversation.

When we consider how much we are indebted to our conversational powers for happiness and success in life; when we consider to what extent the differences which we observe in the social state of different men and women, depend upon their relative degree of aptness and skill in conversation; and when we consider that our ability to converse is as much a matter of imitation and cultivation as any other branch of education, let us not despair of success in teaching an art so important as this, in the school-room. If the first experiment fails, let us try a second, and if need be, a third, and a seventh. Already has this great art of life been divorced from our course of school instruction quite too long. The past is full of successes in the great work of improvement. If we would make the present equally fruitful, there is no field that is more invitingly open before us than this. Let us not shrink from the responsibility. *The object can be attained, and the teachers of to-day are equal to the work.*

Fortunately, we have already furnished to our hands, one of the most valuable instrumentalities for the accomplishment of this object. The system of object-teaching which is now generally introduced in the best primary schools of the country, is of itself a grand system of conversational exercises. The influence of these exercises, in forming good or bad habits of conversation, depends entirely upon the manner in which they are conducted. If the conversation is allowed to drift, without any special guidance or direction, then will the formation of bad habits be as common a result as the formation of good ones. But if the cultivation of a correct and elegant style of conversation is made a cardinal object in every lesson, then will this secondary fruit of object-teaching be as rich and abundant as the primary, and habits of untold value and importance will be nurtured and strengthened from the very beginning of school education. Here then is the first great point for us to secure. Let it be distinctly understood by both teachers and pupils that every lesson on objects is also a lesson in conversation; let incorrect and inelegant forms of speech be corrected as they occur; let correct and appropriate expressions receive special commendation; and in marking the value of each pupil's exercise, let the form and mode of expression be regarded as one of the most important elements to be taken into account. If I had the ability, I would give increased emphasis to this direction, because I have reason to believe that at-

tention to the art of conversation is now in a great degree overlooked by teachers in giving lessons on objects.

But we must not stop here. The art of conversation is of greater importance than many of the other branches taught in school, and like the other branches, it should have set exercises, recurring at regular intervals. I would have the experiment tried of assigning a special conversational lesson once a week. Let a subject be given to the class, and let both teacher and pupils inform themselves, if need be, in regard to it, so that they may come to the exercise with minds aglow with interest in the subject before them. Then let the teacher or one of the pupils introduce the subject in an easy, natural manner, and others follow with the utmost freedom, as inclination moves, but with an earnest desire and effort on the part of each to render the conversation as entertaining and acceptable as possible. At the close of the conversation, the teacher may review the exercise, and in a kind and proper manner point out the prominent defects and suggest improvements. Special critics may also be appointed from the class, who shall present their views of the conversation in the same kind and courteous spirit; or the merits and defects of the exercise may be made the subject of a free conversation by the whole class, under the general direction of the teacher.

If the class, or any portion of it, can visit a menagerie, a museum, a steam-engine, a ship, a fair, a military parade, a brickyard, a saw-mill, or any other object of interest let this be taken as a theme for a conversational exercise.

Conversation often takes the form of discussion. Occasionally let a subject be given to the class for discussion; one portion of the pupils taking one side, and another portion the other side. Let the discussion be introduced and continued with the same freedom as other conversational exercises, only with somewhat greater latitude of earnestness and pungency.

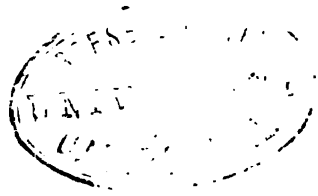
These lessons admit of a great variety of changes, which the teacher will readily discover and introduce. A conversation may be assigned in which a portion of the class shall represent Englishmen just arrived in this country; or a portion of the pupils may be supposed to have just returned from foreign travel, or from California or Colorado. A table conversation may be introduced; or the class may regard themselves as strangers to each other, meeting on a steamer.

An interesting passage of history, a biographical sketch, or other selection may be read before the class, and then made the subject of conversation. Reading and conversation should go hand in

hand. If the influence of this method can be sent home to the families to which the pupils belong, an additional advantage will be gained. The value of family reading is increased a hundred per cent. when it is accompanied by free conversation and critical remarks.

There are certain rules respecting the occasions when particular subjects should be introduced or avoided; respecting forwardness and reserve; proprieties to be observed in the presence of different classes of persons; changes of style required in different circumstances, etc., which should be taught at school. These rules are best learned in connection with the conversational exercises to which they relate. They should be so applied as to guide and elevate the tone of conversation without fettering it.

But I have already extended these remarks to greater length than I intended. I believe it will be generally admitted that I have not over estimated the defects which now exist in our methods of teaching English grammar; and I believe I shall be sustained in the position that it is the duty of teachers to labor earnestly and perseveringly for the removal of these defects. I have endeavored to point out a few of the methods by which this object can be accomplished. If the magnitude and importance of the object can be fully realized, the work will be half performed. Teachers will then devise and multiply methods of their own; grammars will be written with this object distinctly in view; every recitation, every written exercise, and every utterance in school will be made to bear in this direction; and English grammar will truly become "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly."



XII. LIBERAL EDUCATION.

BY SAMUEL P. BATES, A. M.,

Deputy Superintendent of Public Schools in Pennsylvania.

We propose in discussing this subject to consider what a truly liberal education is, to refer to some defects which seem to exist, and to point out their cause and remedy.

The term, *Liberal Education*, as commonly used has an acquired rather than a generic signification. It is understood to signify the study of a number of branches which a pupil is required to pursue in order to receive the degree of Bachelor of Arts, at an institution authorized by charter to grant this degree. As thus used it has not reference to the quality of discipline, or to the kind of instruction given, but to the quantity. Irrespective of the facilities of imparting instruction, or the methods of culture pursued, the term is alike applicable.

The word liberal, as applied to the number and extent of a collegiate course of studies, is used with its ordinary signification, as this course will be acknowledged to be eminently liberal and exhaustive. But there is something other to be considered in securing a liberal education, than the course of study to be pursued. Its amplitude does not of necessity determine its wisdom, or the extent to which the culture imparted by it, is truly liberal. A man in the full maturity of his intellectual powers, who has made all knowledge his province, in looking back over the whole field, may easily mark out a course of studies, which if mastered would make a complete scholar. And here the mistake has been made. We have looked at education objectively. We have determined what would be desirable to have done in order to make a liberal scholar, and have disregarded the quality and strength of the pupil's mind and its susceptibility of being nourished by such studies. We have marked out a course which must be completed in four years, but have neglected to consider whether the pupil's powers are fitted to digest and assimilate it in that time, or whether he has arrived at that intellectual maturity necessary for the mastery of such studies.

It would not be difficult to draw up a bill of fare for one's dinner, that could in one sense be pronounced liberal, embracing every article of diet known to the *cuisinier*; but it would not follow because every thing on the bill was partaken of, that his physical system would be nourished and strengthened in a corresponding degree. Education properly has reference to the vigor and culture of the mental faculties secured by a course of study and not to gormandizing knowledge. "The paramount end," says Hamilton, "of liberal study is the development of the student's mind."

The term *liberal*, therefore, as applied to education, is entitled to a broader interpretation, and one which its common meaning warrants us in using. It ought to signify the quality and completeness of the culture derived, and not the quantity of studies pursued. That should be regarded as liberal which is based on scientific principles. The education given in the primary school ought to be just as liberal as that given in the college, that is, it ought to be dictated by enlightened views, adapted to the nature and capacity to be educated, and administered by well directed practice. That can never be regarded as truly liberal, however much in quantity, which is unphilosophic and empirical in quality.

What then is a truly liberal education? It is one which secures to the pupil a full development of his nature, in harmony with those principles of growth which the Creator has established. That we may know whether our culture is correct we must study and know what powers the pupil has in readiness to be developed at the different stages of his progress, and what means will best feed and assist nature to perfect her work.

At first, like the tender plant, is the growing body, requiring pure air, sunlight, wholesome food, and activity, and, of the spirit, external and internal perception, warm feelings unchilled by deception or disappointment, a lively curiosity, and a loving confiding heart. Later, in addition to these, are more strikingly developed, memory, imagination, a still stronger curiosity to know the unknown and illimitable, and a keen sense of right and wrong. And still later, the powers of reason, taste, the passions, a poetic imagination, the religious sense, and, ruling over all, the will.

To make the education of these powers liberal we must select, from our list of studies adapted to the training of the pupil's nature, such as are best suited to the different stages of its development. The child at first manifests a strong curiosity to see, to handle, and to know about every thing that attracts its attention. At this period the senses are more than usually acute. It apprehends and

remembers with remarkable precision every thing which it once comprehends, and with much less effort than at any subsequent period. This activity of the senses should then be fostered. The teaching should to a great extent be oral. The school-room should be furnished with abundant material for illustrating the descriptive portion of the rudiments of every department of learning. The child never tires of stories about animals and their habits,—of the wonders of the sea and the adventures of men upon its bosom,—the peculiarities of the different races of men, their modes of life, and the lands they dwell in,—a desire for picture-making, and in the majority of children a fondness for music. These tastes and inclinations point unmistakably to the powers which nature has in readiness for culture. The curiosity to see and to handle should be cultivated and the gratification experienced in having this curiosity satisfied should be made to contribute to its growth. All the elementary notions of form and their combinations,—of numbers as applicable to forms and to objects,—of colors,—of the passions and desires, as love, and gratitude, and confidence, should be nurtured, and so exercised as to secure a healthy growth.

Later, when arrived at the period of youth, when the memory and the representative faculty are more perfectly developed, then the instruction addressed to the senses may give way to studies wherein the material of knowledge which has previously been acquired shall be used, and exertion of mind will be required, and wherein things not readily understood shall be grappled with, and intellectual victories be won. The mind will thus be enabled to rejoice in its strength. This is the period in which geography, history, biography, travels, natural history with the more extended investigation of form and number should be pursued. Every subject upon which the imagination can dwell delighted, is relished.

When the youth has arrived at the years of maturity, and can reflect and reason, is touched with sentiment, has an idea of the beautiful, and recognizes that which is worthy of veneration and worship, then he is prepared for the discipline and the culture which a more severe course in the abstruse sciences affords, the sylogism, the generalizations of science, original demonstration, the laws of taste and criticism, the principles of research and investigation, the honors due to good men, and the attributes of Deity.

It is indeed important that these two subjects—the powers to be educated, and the fit subjects to be taught—be carefully considered. But, *even of greater importance than these is it that the instruction be given by a liberal minded and well instructed teacher.* It is no

enough that the proper studies be assigned to the proper period of development. It is the teacher who is to put life and vitality into the system, and the education which results will be liberal in proportion as he is liberal. Without him, the lecture room, the text-book, the cabinet, the library, the apparatus, are but the manakin, the dry bones left to rattle in the air. Why was it that when Dr. Arnold journeyed down from Rugby,* the scene of his early labors and his triumphs, to the college at Oxford to which he had been elected as a lecturer and a professor, he soon found that that lecture room, which under other professors had been but meagerly attended, was at once crowded to overflowing? It was because those young men found that the going there was like going up to the good feast. It was indeed a banquet-hall, and Juno never summoned her guests to the halls of Jove, where was spread a banquet more magnificent.

One of the prominent errors of our modern education, both in the primary school and in the college, has been, that we have given too much prominence to the text-book, and too little to the living teacher. If we examine this matter historically, we find that in the early stages of education, and up to the time of the invention of the art of printing, the voice of the living teacher was almost exclusively relied on. The master did not publish the notes of his teaching, and it is probable that but few copies were made of them, and those rather as an after-thought and as preservative of the words of the master, than as a text-book to be put into the hands of the new pupil when he entered the school. The disciples of Plato wandered with him amid the groves of the academy.

"———— studious walks and shades,"

while he propounded his doctrines. The pupil met the teacher and the text-book in one personage, and drank in wisdom from the living master. In his very eye and gesture the thoughts were read which he uttered. All doubts and difficulties were discussed and solved as they occurred to the learner, and the author's own perceptions were sharpened and quickened by this reflex influence. "Almost all the education" says Macauley, "of a Greek consisted in talking and listening."

In later times, when the art of printing came into use, and the manuscripts of the old teachers were multiplied and scattered through the civilized nations, these works began to be studied. Still they did not come into immediate use as instruments of in-

* Stanley's Life of Arnold, Vol II., pages 254-5.

struction. The only cultivated class during the dark ages, from the fifth to the thirteenth centuries, were the priests. Consequently, they had the entire control of education. The kind of instruction which they gave was naturally such as most intimately concerned their vocation. The schools were ecclesiastic and monastic institutions. The course of instruction was such as to give an exclusive education. The living teacher was still in the ascendent and the books of the old masters were *yet* only subsidiary to his designs.

But the time was approaching when education could no longer be circumscribed. The masses, who for centuries had been besotted in ignorance, were to be aroused from their stupor. The art of printing had put within their reach the literature of the polished nations of antiquity. Those matchless conceptions which the sages of the academy and the forum had uttered, found a lodgment in minds from which the spark of intelligence was not wholly extinguished, though enshrouded in the mists and darkness of that benighted period; and when the voice of Luther rang through Europe, proclaiming that religious intolerence should be no more, the power of an exclusive education was forever broken.

In our day a complete revolution has taken place from the practice which prevailed among the teachers of antiquity, the text-book having become omnipotent and the teacher a cipher in the comparison. In whatever grade of schools, he who has mastered a system, and is himself an independent artist, is the exception. The teacher has thus become degraded to a menial position, and the text-book stands up before him and hides him from view.

The school has thus lost the freshness, the vitality, and inspiration which in early times it had. The dull and lifeless book, to the pupil unskilled in habits of study, appears repulsive, and he too often comes to abominate the school and all connected with it.

The influence of this error is easily traceable to the making of text-books. The author, believing that it is his province to make a text-book and a teacher bound together in one volume, has not confined his labors to his legitimate business, writing the elements of a science; but he has put in along with them much trifling minutiæ, and his own method of teaching it, taking it for granted that teaching is merely an imitative art, and that every one can follow precisely in his footsteps. As a consequence we have books of familiar science, and science made easy, and science without a teacher, and milk and water dilutions till the veriest babe would be troubled to find any nourishment therein.

From this elevation of the text-book, and consequent degredation

of the teacher, have sprung many evils, and caused our education to be in many respects illiberal and unphilosophic. In one of the reports of the Hon. John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the schools of Boston, occurs this statement: "Another general defect is the want of profitable employment for the children, especially in the lowest classes. Go into any of these schools at any time of day, and in nine cases out of ten, if not in forty-nine out of fifty, three-fourths of the pupils will be found without profitable employment. Thus the time of these children is wasted, for precious months and years in succession. But this great waste of time is not the only evil arising from this defect. Many bad habits are formed. The strength of the teacher, which should be expended in teaching, is necessarily taxed to a great extent by the incessant vigilance and care requisite to keep these idlers out of mischief and to secure some reasonable degree of stillness."*

What is the explanation of the difficulty here complained of? Is it not that the teacher goes to the school with the expectation that the pupils will study and find out what they need to know from a text-book, and that he himself is simply to superintend the study and hear them recite their lessons? It is the text-book that the pupil is to meet at the school-room, and commune with, and be instructed by, and *not* the teacher. Is not this the impression entertained by even the teachers of our primary schools, and by the great mass of teachers in the ungraded schools throughout the land? It is unnecessary to trace the results of this evil in the miserable reading, and drawling tones, which we hear in the primary school, and in the pupil's ignorance of the many primary notions which their faculties are expressly fitted to apprehend.

Another evil which results from this want of personality on the part of the teacher is imperfect classification; a failure to discover the nature, the peculiarities, the inner life of the pupil; a neglect to come into intimate and tender sympathy with him, and then to ply him with such labors as are suited to his tastes, his talents, his powers of endurance, and his susceptibility of thinking. Instead, the almost universal habit is to treat all with the same diet, and to dole it out from the text-book by the page, and if all do not fatten alike on this unvarying regimen, the *fortunates* are pronounced apt to learn, and are petted, while the *unfortunates* are classed as dunces and blockheads, and, if they ever know anything, it is what they learn outside of, or after they leave school. The result is, that the pupil's individuality is not recognized, and consequently is not de-

* Quoted in Report of the School Committee of Boston, 1863, page 13.

veloped; and routine teaching settles down like night upon the school, from the mere force of habit and example.

But illiberal and unsound education is not confined to the primary school. The results of the errors to which we have alluded are propagated and multiplied as we ascend. There is perhaps no branch of study which appeals so strongly to the wonder, the curiosity, and the imagination of the pupil, as that of Geography. It has to do with strange lands and scenes, from the sterile and monotonous regions of the poles, to the boundless verdure and magnificence of the tropics,—the fauna and flora scattered up and down the earth, filling every region with life, activity, and beauty. It has to do with the great deep, with the currents, which, like the veins in the body of a huge monster course through every part, with its fleets that sail to distant climes, and its balmy breathings upon the land. In the hands of a living teacher fully imbued with his subject, and with the spirit of a master, such a science as this is fitted to awaken the liveliest interest, even the intense enthusiasm of the pupil. But with the ordinary teacher the results attained are the memorizing a few facts and figures, and names and distances, bald and bare, wherein the pupils memory is exercised and his powers of application and plodding are increased, but wherein the true field of his labors is scarcely entered and the rich rare fruits are left unplucked. To remedy the evil an attempt has been made to treat Physical Geography as a separate branch, for more advanced and mature studies, and of thus divorcing Physical from Political and Mathematical Geography. But this is reversing the true and natural order, and adding to the unsoundness of the ordinary course. A knowledge of the physical features naturally precedes that of the political and mathematical, and should form the basis and framework of every other part of the science.

But even more striking than in any other common school branch are the defects in the ordinary teaching of grammar. The end which seems to be aimed at by the course pursued, is to enable the pupil to *parse*, or what is equivalent, to *analyze*, analysis being merely an abridged form of parsing. From the beginning to the end of the course, mattering little how long continued, the labors are chiefly directed to the accomplishment of this result; and it is not an occurrence at all unfrequent that the pupil when he has completed his grammatical studies, uses incorrect language in conversation, and has little facility in graceful or even correct writing. We judge of a tree by its fruits. And if after years of labor and study he is unable to speak or write with propriety, the course pur-

sued must be regarded as unsound. Indeed, a casual examination of the subject will convince one of the justness of the conclusion, and that the results are such as we ought to expect. If the pupil devotes himself to the study of the principles, the rules and exceptions of a grammar, and simply learns, as a result, to apply these principles to parsing, it can not be expected that the power and facility of expressing thought will be materially increased thereby. If one wishes to become a practical surgeon, he is not satisfied with the study of the principles of anatomy and rules for manipulating with surgical instruments; but he enters the dissecting-room and by long continued and careful practice under the eye of a competent instructor he tests rules and principles by trial-practice, until he acquires skill in the art. So in music. One may study rules for fingering and playing the scale all his days, and unless he practices, and developes a familiarity with its execution by repeated efforts, his studies will be fruitless.

To teach the use of language successfully it must be developed from within, by a judicious training and use of those gifts which the Creator has implanted there. A memorizing of the rules of grammar and of parsing, even of idiomatic phrases is not the method of developing language which nature would seem to indicate. For, after all our reasonings and plans of education, the correctness of our course must be decided by an appeal to the nature and constitution of the faculties and the conditions of their growth.

It is impossible in a study so noble, so comprehensive, and so beautiful as that of language to inspire the pupil with a love for its investigation and a taste for the graces of speech by compelling him to commit to memory and to apply in parsing, the dry rules and exceptions of the text-book. It can only be effected by the inspiration of the teacher who is himself in love with the theme.

But meagerness of results in the cultivation of the gift of language is not confined to the study of grammar in the common school. It is a matter of doubt in the minds of many whether the culture actually derived from the study of Latin and Greek in our higher institutions, by the course of instruction commonly employed is truly liberal, and what it ought to be, or whether it bears a reasonable proportion to the time and labor spent upon them. We have at the present time some hundred and thirty colleges in the United States, graduating annually some two thousand students with the degree of Bachelor of Arts, all studying the ancient languages, and yet where are our real classical scholars,—that is those who pursue a generous course of reading of classic authors aside

from the mere text-books of their college days? It would not surprise us if the number in a generation could be counted upon one's finger-ends.

But suppose we make the standard of judgment less severe. How many of the boys who are reading the classic authors in our colleges have a taste for, and a just appreciation of the writings of those immortal authors? Does the eye sparkle with delight and the heart thrill with joy in recognition of great thought and noble sentiment? It is feared that there are few whose hearts are thus touched and warmed. It would perhaps be nearer the fact to believe that the thrill of joy and sparkle of the eye has been oftener occasioned by the escape from a recitation, or the striking of the bell which proclaims the lesson ended. Is it a practice at all common among students to consult the opinions and principles of a Greek or a Latin author in order to be influenced by them, or to discuss them, or does he often take the pains to read a line beyond the lesson prescribed?

We may take even a still lower standard of criticism. From four to six years are spent in the study of Greek and Latin, for the purpose as is alledged, of the discipline and the culture which is thereby acquired—that is, culture and discipline in the use of language. And yet how many of all those who study the classics are ever materially influenced in their style of thought, of conversation, of writing, by the classic authors! We rarely recognize the severe style of the old authors in the students' exercises. Do they in reading the text of these languages comprehend the idea of the author, or recognize the peculiar style in which he writes? If we are to judge by the tone and modulation of their reading it would be inferred that the almost universal practice is simply to call the words without regard to the style or even the thought of the author. In making the translation, too, it is rare that they succeed in framing the English so as to preserve the peculiarities, or even the essential qualities of the style in the original.. It is true that the pupil learns the meaning and derivation of the words in ordinary use, and to explain the constructions peculiar to the language. If a phrase is found idiomatic the rule or exception of syntax is searched for which covers the case, and the pupil thus succeeds in turning a dead into a living language. But even here there is often a lack of taste and discrimination exercised in making the translations. It is often indifferent English, and sometimes not even grammatical.

About one-half the time spent in a collegiate course, and in

preparation therefor, is given to these studies. Are the fruits which result therefrom to the mass of those who pursue them truly liberal and satisfactory? Is it economical for all those desiring a libera. education to pursue them? These are questions which we should not fear to propose and to discuss.

But waiving their consideration for the present, let us examine the changes which have taken place in the course of study required for what is termed a liberal education. The American college was modeled upon the plan of the English colleges which are the tributaries to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; the office of the latter being to grant degrees to pupils presented from the former as ready for graduation. In the early American college the course of study consisted in the main of Latin, Greek, and Mathematics. The time devoted to this course, after a preparatory training, was four years. The pupil was constantly, and, as is believed, profitably employed upon these studies. But since the establishment of the first colleges in this country, great progress has been made in all the natural and experimental sciences. The boundaries of knowledge have been greatly enlarged. Consequently new branches of learning have from time to time been introduced, until at present some twenty-five new studies have been added to the curriculum. There are embraced in a full college course, as at present pursued, Latin, Greek, Mathematics—comprising Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry plain and spherical, Surveying, Nautical Astronomy, Analytical Geometry, Analytical Mechanics, Differential Calculus, and Celestial Mechanics; Ancient and Modern History, Botany, Physiology, Zoölogy, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Civil Engineering, Analytical Chemistry, Rhetoric, Logic, Political Economy, Constitution of the United States, French, German, Italian or Spanish, Ethics, Evidences of Religion, Psychol ogy, Essay writing, Declamations and Elocution. Such is the schedule of the studies which a boy is required to pursue in order to graduate at the present time. It embraces the elements of nearly all the sciences which have been systematized. Being considered as an exhaustive survey of the whole field of inquiry, it is regarded as a very liberal course of study. The colleges of the United States have adopted substantially the same course, and with what facilities they have, are teaching it.

This course of study, when compared with that which was adopted by the colleges in the early history of the country, presents a striking contrast. If four years were then profitably employed in the study of Latin, Greek, and Mathematics, is the same period

now more profitably employed upon a course where there have been added some twenty-five new branches? Is the education derived from the latter course more liberal than that secured by the former? There has been no decrease in any studies, but a constant increase; even more both of classics and mathematics being required now than formerly. The question seems to resolve itself into this form—if eight ounces of bread are sufficient for a man's breakfast, and his hunger is therewith satisfied, will his appetite or his condition be improved by compelling him to eat forty ounces.

Could a revelation have been made to an educator living towards the close of the eighteenth century, of the change to be made in the course of collegiate studies in the succeeding half century, what would have been the tenor of his reflections in reasoning upon its probable effect? Would they not have been something like the following: At present the pupil has no more studies than he is able successfully to master. He can pursue a branch continuously and without interruption. Time is given for reflection and careful investigation. The mind is held delighted with the grandeur and beauty of the truths he investigates. What is learned is received with a hearty relish. Rest and relaxation succeed to toil, and the mind is strengthened and invigorated in conformity to the natural laws of growth.

But, if twenty-five new branches be added to the present course, and the time for pursuing them remains the same, the pupil will find himself beset and harassed with severe labors on every side. With an average of forty weeks of study to the year, he has in four years one hundred and sixty weeks. At a moderate estimate one-third of this time must be devoted to the classics, leaving, we will say, one hundred weeks, which, divided among twenty-five studies, will give about four weeks, on an average, to each. The time that can be devoted to each study will thus be reduced to an amount entirely out of proportion to that required for the thorough mastery of any science, or, if the time is protracted by pursuing a number of branches coördinately, he will find his labors so broken and distracted by other labors pressing upon him, that he will become discouraged and dispirited. He will go daily to the recitation-room with a feeling of dread, or if he is able to master his lessons thoroughly, so as to stand up creditably in his class, he will find that the constant wear upon his physical and nervous energies will be fatal to that healthy growth and development which his education ought primarily to secure. He will learn to prepare for a recitation and an examination, and when these are past he will be glad to dismiss

from his thoughts what has been associated in his mind only with pain. He will have neither the time, the inclination, nor the energy to follow out the results of his studies, nor to pursue a full course of reading upon the subjects to which he has attended. At the expiration of the time that can be given to one text-book, he will be hurried into another, and thus to the end. The true aim of his labors will hardly be thought of, beyond that of being able at the close to attach the first two letters of the alphabet to his name, and of passing as one who is liberally educated.

Such would naturally be the course of reflection of one looking prospectively upon the changes to be effected. And what are the opinions of those who have had experience in collegiate education, after fifty years have elapsed, and the changes incident have actually taken place?

Edward Everett, and no better authority upon a topic like this can be cited, said in his inaugural address as President of Harvard University, "The objection lies rather in the other direction, namely, that the student is taken over more ground in a short time than he is able thoroughly to explore; and that, of the branches of study to which his attention is called, all can not be equally important for the future uses of life in its various callings. These difficulties are usually serious, and among those with which it is hardest to deal. They are the direct opposite of those which were felt under the ancient systems of education, in which what Lord Bacon calls the professory branches, principally the divinity, rhetoric, and logic of the schools were exclusively taught; and as far as the attainment of useful knowledge goes, scarce anything was done in the way of direct preparation for the secular callings of life. In striving to remove these objections our seminaries have perhaps gone to the other extreme. They have so multiplied the list of academical studies, that in the period of four years assigned to the collegiate course—with the usual allowance for vacations—three months is the aggregate of the time which would be given to any one branch, if equal attention were paid to all, reckoning the two ancient languages but as one study and the modern languages as another."

Dr. Pusy in a letter to the vice-chancellor of Oxford University, England, thus remarks upon this subject: "It is absolutely necessary at present, to make some provision towards relieving the candidates for honors. Because we have so far simply added greatly to their burdens; we have imposed upon them a double examination, and a certain quantity of Natural Philosophy, and we have given them no assistance or compensation whatever. Unless we do

something in this direction, the measures which we have agreed upon in convocation will break down altogether."

President Wayland, in his admirable work on University education in Great Britain and America, in speaking upon this topic, uses the following very strong and pointed language: "Can the work that is marked out in the course of studies in any of our Colleges be performed in four years? Is there any proportion between the labor to be done and the time in which it is to be accomplished? * * * The course of study in the English Universities is extremely limited, the students enter the University from the best of grammar schools, and yet those who are candidates for honors are obliged to study industriously, and frequently intensely. If this is, therefore, a fair measure of what a student can do, what must be the result if three or four times the amount of labor be imposed upon him? It must be evident that he can not do it well."

"It is a remarkable circumstance," says Sir William Hamilton, that, before the invention of printing, Universities viewed the activity of the pupil as the great means of cultivation, and the communication of knowledge as only of subordinate importance; whereas, since that invention, Universities, in general, have gradually allowed to fall into disuse the powerful means which they possess of rousing the pupil to exertion, and have been too often content to act as mere oral instruments of information, forgetful, it would almost seem, that Fust and Coster ever lived. It is acknowledged, indeed, that this is neither the principal nor the proper purpose of a University. Every writer on academical education from every corner of Europe proclaims the abuse."

The view we were led to anticipate, is thus confirmed by the deliberate opinions of those who confessedly stand at the head of scholars and teachers. It would seem, then, that even in the highest grade of academic culture, there are defects. The College, which, *par excellence*, is characterized for giving a liberal education, is giving an education which, in some respects, is illiberal and unsound. In that very particular in which, at first view, it would seem that the College is justly entitled to the character of being liberal, namely, in the comprehensiveness and exhaustiveness of its course of study, in that is found one of its serious defects. The great number of studies pursued in a limited time, embracing, as it does, nearly the whole range of the sciences, instead of making it liberal and complete, is an element of its illiberality and unsoundness.

It is a fact that can not be disguised, that the respect and confidence once entertained for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, has been

seriously impaired, and may we not look for its explanation in the changes to which we have alluded? As for the degree of A. M., it has no significance whatever beyond that of A. B. It is the index or exponent to the fact that at least three years have elapsed since graduation. It is conferred on any one who applies at the end of that time, whatever may have been his occupation. Why grant this second degree if merely time, with no additional culture, be required? Or rather, would it not be advisable, if the degree is to be granted, to require that a liberal course of study be pursued as a pre-requisite, and thus give it a meaning and a value?

From the views which we have presented, it would appear that there are defects in education, as well in the higher institutions as in the primary and common schools; that there is lack of judgment and skill exercised in arranging the order and course of studies; that there is, to some extent, a failure to give a truly liberal culture, which is the pupil's right at every stage of his progress.

Having thus freely pointed out some errors in education, it becomes us to inquire for the cause of the evils of which we complain.

It would seem that, to any reflecting mind, there can be but one cause assigned. Education has never been treated as a science, nor teaching as a learned profession.

In almost every other field of inquiry the results of investigation are more definite and satisfactory than in this. In the practice of this art the rankest empiricism prevails. How could we expect the results to be other than unphilosophic and crude.

Teaching is itself an art. But all art is based on science. There can be, therefore, no certain approximation to perfection in the art except through the attainment and application of scientific principles.

The teacher may disregard science. He may learn to teach by observing how others do it. He may thus imitate and may habitually and very conscientiously repeat the copy to others; but he has thus only learned to follow a copy, and can only teach others an imitation. This is the method of the empiric.

But teaching can not rest upon a foundation so narrow and insecure. Empiricism, it is true, is the mother of science, inasmuch as it precedes it, and from it science is developed. We learn a thing empirically before we do philosophically. But empirical knowledge can not satisfy a reflecting mind. It does not rest contented with a fact. It turns back and traces its history—its cause. Thus, to perception succeeds reflection. The mass of the human family never stop to pursue the latter process; hence, the reason why so many are satisfied with empiricism.

The teacher should not, then, rest satisfied with the imitation of his model. He should seek the philosophical explanation of the copy, analyze and clearly seize the principles that expound how it is, and why it is. He is then no longer an empiric, a mere imitator, but he has the resources within himself to become an independent artist.

The Creator has established laws for the development of the human faculties. Those laws are fixed and immutable. And though there are differences of temperament, of passion, of will, yet the development of these faculties proceeds upon principles which are common to all and in all generations. If a human being is found in whom the growth of the mental powers does not proceed in conformity to these principles, he is regarded as an anomaly. These laws are as uniform and as unvarying as those which govern the anatomical structure of the human system, and we calculate with as much certainty upon the operation of their conditions, as upon the circulation of the blood, or upon the existence of the delicate ramifications of the nervous system. These laws are equally susceptible of being reduced to system, to science.

And yet the operations of these laws have been less subject to the tests of reason and reflection, than almost any other department of human wisdom. Where is the Cuvier or the Agassiz of the teaching science! The laws of form and number, among the most beautiful which the mind is capable of conceiving, have been traced out and expressed, even to the conception of those sublime forces which govern the masses of the material Universe. History has been read by the light of Philosophy, and its several sciences have been subjected to the severest tests of analytic acuteness, and the elements reduced to the most surprising and unexpected simplicity. But we search in vain for any work upon the science of Education, that science of all others the most noble, the most comprehensive, that is in any way exhaustive or satisfactory.

It is true that great improvements have been made in teaching during the last half century. We have, as it were, been feeling our way in the dark, and have gradually been coming to the light. To the beginning of the eighteenth century, education was abandoned almost exclusively to routine teaching. But at its opening that intellectual movement which began, that spirit of inquiry which was aroused and which has resulted in the splendid triumphs of modern science, was felt also in education. Education began to be subjected to the tests of method and reflection. The leading improvement which has resulted, and which has been introduced into our modern

systems of instruction, is analysis. From this have originated the most satisfactory and surprising results. But in the application of this admirable method, and in its relation to other methods, we are still wandering with uncertain step. Of this fact, the errors to which reference has been made bear ample testimony.

Education, therefore, has not as yet been fully treated as a science. It is equally and even more strikingly evident that teaching has never been a learned profession. Much may be said about the elevated aim of teaching, and its worthiness as a calling, and its claims to be ranked among the learned professions. These are indeed worthy themes, and the arguments by which they are established and defended are of the most weighty and convincing character. They are indeed unanswerable.

But the proof that teaching has an elevated aim, and is worthy to be ranked as a learned profession, can never make it such. Where are the members of this profession who have pursued a course of study in the science and in the practice of teaching? Where are the schools that are devoted to giving instruction in this science?

In Theology, in Medicine, in Law, and even in War, there are schools in which the theory and the practice of these sciences are thoroughly taught. These schools are designed exclusively to impart professional skill. Their courses of study are selected with this view. A learned body of men preside over them, and give instruction in the various departments. A person who has devoted himself to these studies, and has become thoroughly versed in the art which he is to practice, may justly be entitled to a rank in a learned profession.

But what is the fact in regard to teaching? There have been, it is true, within a comparatively recent period, Normal Schools established for preparing teachers.

But it is only the common school teacher who has, as yet, given any time to preparation in the Normal Schools. The teachers in the higher institutions have given no attention to professional training in schools established for the purpose, for no such schools exist. The Professor in a college is commonly selected on account of his eminence as a scholar; not because he manifests professional skill, and in some cases never having had a day's practice in teaching, till he is installed in the professor's chair. A man in middle life is appointed to a professorship. He has been a score of years graduated. He stood well as a scholar in his college days, has had ordinary success as a minister of the gospel; but has never had any

training or experience as a teacher, and from his temperament and habits would seem to have little aptness for the art. This is the history of many of his class.

The fact is notorious that the most brilliant scholar is often the most indifferent teacher. The reason is obvious. Without special training in the art of communicating truth, he who learns, as it were, by intuition, can not adapt his teaching to those who are slow of apprehension, who usually embrace a large portion of every class. Hence, the habit of selecting the teacher on account of his excellence as a scholar simply, without professional training, proves, in many cases, a lamentable failure.

Not only is there no preparatory professional training required for College Professors, but they do not keep up any professional organization, and have no periodical devoted to the discussion of subjects pertaining to the science and practice of teaching. The Professors of one college do not meet those of another college where the subject of teaching is discussed. They do not compare the principles of their practice, nor endeavor to elucidate the philosophy of their art. In some respects their practice is governed by no settled principles.

This statement may be confirmed by reference to a practice which was the subject of personal investigation. Being engaged some years ago in giving instruction in the Latin and Greek languages to boys, preparatory to their entrance to college, I was desirous of knowing what system of pronunciation of the ancient languages was likely to prevail among American scholars, that, by adopting it, my pupils might be correctly initiated in these studies. I accordingly addressed letters of inquiry upon this subject to several professors of languages of the greatest eminence. The replies to these letters represent the opinions and practice prevailing in colleges in the Eastern, Middle and Western States. That the result of these inquiries may be accurately represented, such extracts from the replies as relate to this subject, by permission of the writers, are given.

FROM CHARLES ANTHON, LL. D., PROF. OF ANCIENT LANGUAGES IN COLUMBIA COLLEGE, N. Y.

In your favor of the eighth inst. you ask, "What pronunciation is eventually to prevail in this country in reference to the Greek and Latin languages?" The answer is not an easy one. As long as so many of our Colleges retain the English system, and so many of their graduates are employed in the business of instruction, this mode of pronouncing will naturally have the preponderance. It is, however, I am sorry to say, a system utterly erroneous, and can not, for one moment, compare with that followed on the continent of Europe, although this latter, too, labors itself under very grave errors. My own mode of pronouncing, and the one which I give to my pupils, is of an *eclectic* character, and professes

to cull from all systems whatever is good. It follows, however, the Continental method very closely. In Greek we give *prosody* a decided preference to *accent*.

FROM H. B. HACKETT, D. D., PROF. OF GREEK IN NEWTON THEOLOGICAL SCHOOL, MASS.

The want of uniformity in the Greek pronunciation is certainly a great evil. In my present situation I do not feel bound to train the students in that branch of study, as it belongs to the College. I was taught myself to pronounce according to the principles of our own language, and as a matter of habit have adhered to that system. I have thought that if I were a teacher of the elements of Greek, I should adopt the pronunciation of the modern Greek; first, because I am persuaded that it comes nearer to the old pronunciation than any other; and secondly, because it would form so easy a transition to the acquisition of the modern Greek. Some of our teachers follow that method, but it has not been general. At Cambridge, I believe they adopt a few of the sounds, but do not carry out the system fully. If the College Professors could be induced to adopt some rule or express some opinion on the subject, it would command attention and apply, at least, a partial correction to the evil. Our schools act so independently of one another, and our literary men are so little in the habit of consultation and personal intercourse, that it is likely to remain difficult to secure the agreement in such matters that would be desirable.

FROM JAMES R. BOISE, LL. D., PROF. OF GREEK IN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY.

In respect to the pronunciation of Greek and Latin, I am quite undecided. While in Europe, I became acquainted with the German method, but in my own teaching I have mainly followed the English, (except that I observe the Greek accent in my pronunciation.) Since I have been in Michigan, I have rather inclined to the Continental pronunciation of Greek, more as a matter of convenience than for any other reason, because the majority of those around me are accustomed to that method. I am also inclined to think that it will prevail more and more. I despair, however, of ever seeing in my day a uniform method adopted in this country, though with you I deem it a desirable object. In the present state of things I always advise others to follow whichever system best suits their own inclination.

FROM W. S. TYLER, LL D., PROF. OF LATIN IN AMHERST COLLEGE, MASS.

It seems to me, that there are but two questions to be asked in regard to the pronunciation of the Greek and Latin, and according to the answer to these questions only three methods that can claim any serious consideration from English and American scholars. 1. Are they living languages still spoken by a people who have not only a national existence, but a literature still living? If so, then the usage of that people should govern the pronunciation of their language. In regard to the Latin no one will answer this question in the affirmative. In regard to the Greek there is room for difference of opinion, and I am by no means prepared to deny, indeed, I am rather inclined to believe, that scholars will at length adopt the modern Greek as the standard for the pronunciation of the ancient. 2. If the language is no longer living, can it be *ascertained beyond controversy* what was the pronunciation while it was yet living? If so, I think that pronunciation should be adopted. But if it can not be, or can be only to a limited extent, it is not worth while to try to follow mere whims and conjectures. 3. If the language is dead and its ancient pronunciation can not be ascertained, it seems to me that there is no other principle left to stand upon except for each country to follow the analogy of its own language. I have adopted this course hitherto in reference to Greek and Latin, and shall doubtless continue so to do with Latin, while in Greek I await the results of study and travel which may perhaps turn the scale in favor of the modern Greek.

FROM R. A. JOHNSON, LL. D., PROF. OF LATIN IN THE NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

The question which you propose is an important one, and not without its difficulties. It may be viewed in various relations, and according to the view

taken variously answered. Looking at the matter historically my impression is, that the attempt to restore, as far as possible, the vernacular pronunciation of the Latin, has been generally abandoned, and each nation has independently followed its own laws of sound, without regard to nearness of correspondence to the ancient. If the recovery of the true pronunciation, in a more or less perfect degree, is to be given up as an impossibility, or as a thing undesirable if attainable, then I do not see why each nation may not, within itself, arbitrarily follow its own rules and laws. Neither the French, the English, the German, the Italian, &c., is the old Latin, nor should either claim to be. On this view, too, it is of little consequence that one may chance to be a little nearer, in all probability, to the true pronunciation than another. But with us the question is more difficult than with the other nations above instanced. They, so far as I know, are generally satisfied with the pronunciation of the Latin which the application of the rules of their own idioms produces. Where, however, the English is the vernacular, two methods at least are advocated. These are sometimes called the English and the Continental methods. As between these two, the English method pursues one consistent plain course, not pretending in any sense to give the old Latin pronunciation, while the so-called Continental method goes but half-way, being neither the French, Italian, German, English, nor old Latin, in short, nothing that I know of but itself, so that, as a whole, I prefer for Englishmen the English, to the other, which may be called un-English, or unanything, rather than positively named. Of late, however, among us, the question has been agitated more with reference to a return to the old Latin pronunciation, so far as it can with tolerable satisfaction be recovered, and attempts are made to test the feasibility of applying this in practice in some of our institutions. I am not sanguine in regard to the success of this effort. Indeed, I do not see why the so-called Continental method should have stopped short of all that is now proposed, if it should be found to be easily practicable. The chief difficulty, to my mind, lies in the foreignness, to the English organs of speech and habits, of the sounds simple and combined, with their recurrence, their rapid utterance, and the accompanying gesticulation, of the languages of the Latin nations of Europe: for all these elements go to make up the true language and utterance of the old Latin and Grecian nations.

If it can be brought about as a general thing, that a truly good pronunciation of the Latin, as near, as we can learn it, to the old, shall be taught and learned among us, I shall be much gratified. If the result should be no better than in the case of the French, and other modern languages of Europe, which, I have often observed, are so imperfectly acquired, that the sounds are not true, and the utterance has nothing of the genuine character of the native speaker, I do not know that I should hesitate to prefer the English method in which I was first taught the Latin.

FROM JOHN L. LINCOLN, LL. D., PROF. OF LATIN IN BROWN UNIVERSITY, R. I.

The subject of the pronunciation of Latin has often troubled me, as I could not see any feasible way of introducing what seems to me on the whole the better method, without more loss of time on the part of my students than would be justifiable. The Continental method I suppose comes nearer to the ancient method than does the English and ours. The simple principle with us has been the analogy of our own language, without touching the question how the Romans originally pronounced, except so far as perhaps it was thought that that was a point not capable of being clearly determined. The Italian language, as well as the French and the Spanish, and most of all the Italian, have nearer affinities to the Latin than the English. It is, therefore, reasonable to suppose that the Italian sounds, especially of the vowels, are nearer like the Latin, than the English are. Besides, historically, the Latin has been preserved and employed by writing, speaking and reading in an almost unbroken course in Italy, back through the middle ages, well nigh to the ancient times; and during all this period we know of no variation among the learned in Italy on this subject; and the sounds are substantially the same as those of the Italian language itself. There is also but little difference from the Italian in the pronunciation employed by all other nations on the Continent.

I quite agree with you about the importance of a classical convention. I

have, in former years, tried to stir up my classical brethren to such a meeting, and at one time we made a beginning, but no more. We met in Boston two years in succession about the time of the anniversaries, and the second time a committee was appointed to make arrangements for an association, but that Committee never reported, and there has never been another meeting.

We thus perceive that the practice among these several professors is very diversified. Dr. Johnson prefers the English method, while Dr. Lincoln prefers the Continental or rather the Italian for the Latin, but adheres to no system in his practice. Dr. Hackett prefers for the Greek language the modern Greek pronunciation. Prof. Boise prefers the Continental method, but tells others to adopt that which they prefer, while he himself is governed by the Greek accent in pronouncing that language. Professors Goodwin and Sophocles, Professors of Greek in Harvard University, have each a different system of pronunciation which they adhere to in their teaching, Prof. Sophocles, himself a native Greek, discarding the modern Greek pronunciation. By the Roman method, which is advocated by many, and among others by Prof. Richardson of the Rochester University, we must not say Cicero and Cæsar, but *Keekero* and *Kaizer*. While Dr. Anthon follows neither the English, which he thinks utterly erroneous, nor the Continental, which he favors, but has a sort of electic method, culling what he considers best from all systems. Such is the diversity which prevails. Indeed, the wonder among the builders of Babel, on the morning after the confusion of tongues, could not have been greater, than would be that in an assembly of Professors of Ancient Languages in our American colleges, were each to speak the tongue he teaches.

The plea may be made that these are not spoken languages, and hence it is a matter of no consequence how they are pronounced. But these languages are often quoted, and they are spoken as often at least as once a year in all the colleges; and is it a matter of no consequence that we are defeated in understanding what one attempts to say by diversity of pronunciation? As a matter of principle, as a matter of pride in having some national usage, and more than all, as a matter of convenience and system in the class-room, *it is* important that there be uniformity.

Besides, there must be some principles underlying this subject which, if developed, would be convincing, and settle this question. If not, if it be a matter purely conventional, then it could certainly be settled by mutual consultation. If teaching was really a learned profession, and its practitioners thoroughly indoctrinated in the science of education, such confusion and absurdity could never exist.

But not only is there diversity in practice and lack of personality

in teaching, but there is also great diversity of opinion, as we have already shown, respecting the courses of study, and the order in which the sciences should be pursued. Dr. Benjamin Pierce, acknowledged to be one of the profoundest thinkers of the age, declared, on one of the graduation days at the Lawrence Scientific School, that, in his judgment, a sound and healthy education could be obtained without studying the ancient languages.

This statement, however, does not imply that the ancient languages should be dropped from the curriculum, but that many of those who gain an imperfect knowledge of these branches, and hence reap little benefit from them, might obtain an education without them better suited to their wants. Could much of the descriptive portions of the Natural Sciences be learned in the primary and preparatory schools, and more time be devoted to Language and Philosophy in the college, it would doubtless prove a wholesome reform.

It is believed by many that in our primary education we strive to give discipline when we should be giving knowledge; that in our advanced schools we give knowledge when we should give discipline and discrimination.

But this diversity, while it indicates lack of research and definite knowledge upon the subject of teaching, in one respect gives a hopeful sign. Ignorance is usually a state of quietude wherein tradition is blindly followed. The period of inquiry which succeeds to this, is usually one of disagreement, of agitation, and unsettled state of opinion. It is like the period between daylight and dawn, wherein the outline of things is but dimly seen. But it gives promise of a glorious morn, wherein all things stand disclosed in a broad, clear light.

In considering, therefore, this subject of Liberal Education, there can be no harm in inquiring into any defects which may exist, and of endeavoring to ascertain whether the education we give is in *quality* as well as quantity, quite liberal and sound. The course of remark has been in no spirit of caviling or despondency, but of a simple seeking after truth, with a disposition to look the actual state of affairs full in the face.

We have endeavored to call attention to errors which seem to exist both in methods of teaching and in the order and course of study pursued, and to trace the cause of these evils to their origin.

The remedy which we propose has been intimated in discussing the cause. Education can never become truly liberal throughout all its grades, until it is regarded and treated as a science, and teaching as a learned profession.

It is a matter of humiliation that we have not in this country an institution with ample facilities for giving instruction of an exclusively professional character in teaching; an institution wherein those who are to give instruction in the colleges and professional schools, shall be specially prepared for imparting knowledge. There do not at present seem to be any marked indications of its speedy establishment. But the requirements are so reasonable, and the demands so strong, that they can not very long be resisted.

The field is ample, and promises rich and abundant fruits. Neither Kant nor Herbert Spencer, in their distributions of mental phenomena, has viewed the subject of mental development from the true educational standpoint, nor has either fairly interpreted nature. It remains for the last half of the nineteenth century to read well a science of Education, and to train a truly liberal Profession of Teaching.

XIII. REMARKS ON THE STUDY OF DIDACTICS IN COLLEGES.*

BY THOMAS HILL, D. D.,

President of Harvard College.

EDUCATION is of two kinds, general or liberal, and special or professional.

General or liberal education consists in that discipline and instruction which may conduce to the general perfection and improvement of the pupil, or, in the language of Bacon, may be for the glory of God and for the benefit of mankind. It may likewise be defined as that education which becomes the children of freemen or which fits the child to become a freeman.

This general education may vary according to the capacity of the pupil, and according to the amount of time which his circumstances allow him to take. In my judgment it should vary also according to the sex of the pupil. Women are evidently designed by their Creator for a different work from that of man. This design is manifested in the whole structure of their bodies, and in the whole temper of their minds. Up to the age of ten years the difference between girls and boys is not sufficiently marked to make much difference in their schooling necessary; but at the age of fifteen, differences begin to show themselves very decidedly, and the girl, maturing more quickly, should then give herself more to the higher branches, which the man postpones to later life, or even omits altogether.

Special or professional education is that culture and instruction which fits the child for some chosen walk in life, some particular pursuit in art or science. All general education is to some extent also special, and all special culture has also a general effect. Such is the unity of the human soul that its culture in any single particular improves the whole; and on the other hand, the general cultivation of its powers increases its force in each—as is shown in a marked degree by the well-known fact that the ability of American workmen in special branches (such as cotton-spinning, watch-

* Abstract of a paper read before the National Teachers' Association at Ogdensburg, New York, Aug. 10th, 1864.

making, machine-making, &c.) has been proved statistically to be in proportion to their general schooling.

Yet the distinction between general and special, or liberal and professional education, as given above, is real and important, and often neglected to the injury of the scholar.

The common school and the college are institutions for general education. The topics introduced in them ought therefore to be such, and such only, as are of general utility to the majority of men, or such as throw light on the whole course of subsequent study. Take, for example, Arithmetic as the subject of inquiry—should it be taught in schools and colleges, and if so, to what extent? To the first question there can be but one answer. Arithmetic is necessary to the understanding of every other subject; there is no object of thought to which considerations of number do not apply, explicitly or implicitly; Arithmetic must be taught therefore in liberal education. But to what extent? I answer in *all* its fundamental processes and principles, and in enough of its applications to practical matters to make those processes and principles familiar—no more.

The University differs from the College in adding professional schools where men pursue special branches, of value specially to men of special pursuits—Law Schools, Divinity Schools, Scientific Schools, Medical Schools. Sometimes young men enter these professional schools with a very imperfect general or liberal culture, sometimes, on the other hand, they make, first, the most extensive preparation possible, taking the whole course of studies in a college of high standard and then adding the professional course at the end. Undoubtedly these men make, other things being equal, the most useful men. It is not in the power of schools and teachers, by any amount of teaching, to turn a blockhead into a man of talent; but neither is it in the power of genius to be independent of all education. Given, however, two men of equal original power and temperament, and he will make the most useful and most truly successful man who prepares himself for his profession by the most extensive and thorough course of liberal and professional study.

Now the Normal School is a professional school. It teaches to teach. That pupil in the Normal School will make the best teacher who comes to the school most thoroughly prepared by a previous course of education.

I say the Normal School is a professional school. There is however a sense in which the study of didactics may be called a liberal study; it is, that every child may be considered prospectively as

the head of a family, and that the art of teaching is therefore of universal utility. On the other hand, the art of teaching and the science of teaching are *not* connected *directly* with the principal sciences in the hierarchy; and errors or ignorance in regard to teaching will not directly and seriously affect the pupils' views either of Mathematics, Physics, History, Metaphysics or Theology. And the universal utility of the art is somewhat confined to woman alone. She has the little children committed principally to her. In the course of God's holy Providence he puts woman in charge of little children; she stands as Jesus stands, and as he assures us his Father stands, ever waiting to be teacher and guide to the little ones and to minister to their happiness and progress.

If didactics belong then to general or liberal education, they belong to that division of it which attends to the culture of young women. They should be taught in those colleges which admit young women to their course; and in those which are designed only for young women.

Normal Schools should also be attached to our universities, and bachelors of arts who intend to teach should be urged first to take one or two years' special instruction in the art of teaching. The Normal Schools which are established independent of colleges, should have a course of instruction specially adapted for those who have previously taken a high collegiate course of instruction.

The mere appointment of a Professor of Didactics in each college would not, in my judgment, be wise. The undergraduate course is crowded with studies, and there would be no time to do justice to Didactics. *But the establishment of a Normal School in a University, and of a special course for Bachelors of Arts in a Normal School, would be steps calculated to raise the standard of excellence required of teachers, and would lift towards its proper dignity the high profession of teaching.*

Until these steps are taken it would undoubtedly be of advantage, as a temporary substitute, if the Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy, or other appropriate Professor, should incorporate into his course judicious remarks on the general principles of education, as his topics afford opportunity.

XIV. A NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

THE history of education in different parts of the United States, especially in those which have given character to the movement, has been at first one of individual effort or of separate organizations. These powers have afterward been united to secure a common object, namely, the adoption of a complete system in each of the several States. In the States more recently admitted, a system of public instruction has been adopted with the organic law, but its practical working and adaptation to popular wants have resulted from a coöperation of separate agencies. In every case, whether the system has been the result of trial and experience, or has been transplanted, ready formed, to a new State, the plan has been one of a union of power and influence in a common head. Smaller organizations of teachers are represented in State Associations and these, again, culminate in the National Association. A Department of Public Instruction has official charge of the general educational interests of the State. To this department all educational officers are responsible and their course is guided by its direction. The general tendency to organized action in this form may be considered evidence that it is desirable, and that this system is the most efficient yet devised. From a similarity in the plan and operation of the State and general governments, we may infer the incompleteness of our national system of education and, at the same time, the manner of supplying the defect.

The following thoughts are presented in favor of establishing a national agency corresponding to Boards of Education and Departments of Public Instruction in the several States.

I. The adoption of such an agency would more fully insure the existence, prosperity and perpetuity of our institutions.

The primary idea of a republican form of government is that of a people governing themselves, of their yielding up, of their own accord and for the public good, such of their individual rights as would conflict with the rights of others. It is a concession by the

individual for the benefit of the public, in consideration of the advantages of society. The object is the promotion of the general welfare. As a result of this system there must necessarily be a conflict of judgment concerning the value of the rights of the individual, those of the public, and of the privileges enjoyed by the concession. The proper exercise of this judgment and of the power of self-control which results from it, can only exist where there is an intelligence to appreciate these rights and privileges. Mental culture is a necessity then to the exercise of the power of self-control by the individual. And since the government is an aggregation of individuals, all standing on the same level, politically, it follows that the education of the whole people is not only desirable, but essential to the national existence; if to the existence, then also to the perpetuity and prosperity of the nation.

The advantages of a well developed mind on the part of their rulers were appreciated by the nations of antiquity. The infant monarch was placed under careful instruction, and it was the greatest care of their wise men, their rhetoricians and their philosophers, to develop in his mind the qualities of a successful governor. Modern nations, appreciating equally the advantages of liberal culture, have spared no pains or expense in the education of their future sovereigns. In a republic every citizen is a sovereign. A single vote may determine the policy of the State, and the laws are made and executed by persons taken from the masses. Such being the prerogative and so great being the power of each individual citizen, the conclusion is forced upon us from another stand-point, that the national interests require a high mental culture of all the people.

For the accomplishment of this purpose, State governments are doing much, but their interests and those of the nation lie in the same direction. A National Bureau of Instruction could do much in advancing this great work. The different State systems, where there are any, are distinct from each other, having no official relationship whatever. For the attainment of a common object, their plans are wide apart. Each has its peculiar excellencies and the friends of each are conscious of its possessing serious defects. To assist in assimilating these systems, to bear their excellencies from one to another, to circulate the practical results of different theories and methods, and to publish valuable educational intelligence, might be a great and important object of a national bureau.

But there are several States which have, as yet, no system of popular instruction whatever, or, if any, it is very imperfect; and there is also a very large part of our domain which is yet unsettled.

These States embrace a large portion of our population and—with the territories—much the larger part of the area of our country. Not only would it be for their interests, but clearly a national benefit, if systems were established in these sections, as necessity requires, but it seems a duty devolving upon general government, for its own welfare, to see to it that the most efficient system and one suited to the spirit of republican institutions, is adopted.

II. Education should be nationalized.

I would not be understood to say that the people are not allowed to establish schools or that government does not foster education. Probably no nation has, from its own wealth, done more for the instruction of its people than this. But is this sufficient? Every government is based on some theory, and its success requires that its laws, its customs and the spirit of its people, harmonize with the peculiar character of its constitution. The monarchs of the old world educate their subjects, if at all, in a faith in their institutions, and wisely so; for if they succeed, they gain an intelligent, hence, a more powerful support to their measures; if they fail, they know that they will secure the equally strong opposition of intelligence.

Never before, in the history of the world, has there been a government on an extended plan, based, like ours, upon the entire equality of all its people in their political rights and duties. It has been customary to call the governments of ancient Greece and Rome and some in more modern times, republics; but they were not democratic republics. In the purest democracies of Greece the power was in the hands of a few. A large part of the population were *metics*, while the larger portion were in a state of bondage. In Rome there were different classes, each having its rights, but the most extended privileges were enjoyed by only a few. If history establishes any fact, it is that the rights of citizenship have never been so entirely bestowed upon the whole people as in this nation at the present time. In other important features is this government without precedent. The separation of the different departments, legislative, executive and judicial, and the selection, by popular choice, of persons with whom these powers are vested, have never before been carried to so great an extent.

These peculiarities of our government require that the spirit of the people shall be educated in conformity to them. Unless popular mind is trained in sympathy with republican ideas, or, if, under the right of freedom of opinion, aristocratic notions of society and of education are allowed, different castes of society will spring up, theories of a modified form of government will arise, popular faith

in a republic will be weakened, and its surest basis of support—the attachment of the people—will gradually crumble. If the spirit is not in harmony with the form, if the government has not in itself a vital power and energy which will mold popular sentiment and draw it to itself, then it must yield and adapt itself to the condition of society. Whenever, in the history of nations, the yoke of power has sat uneasily upon the necks of its subjects; whenever, from neglect or injustice, popular feeling has become estranged, a change of policy has been demanded by the people, and the government has generally been modified to meet their wants. Hence, not only the propriety but the necessity of the government's exerting its influence to encourage a system of education which shall harmonize with republican ideas and republican civilization. Aristotle says, "The most effective way of preserving a State is to bring up the citizens in the spirit of the government and, as it were, to cast them in the mold of its constitution."

III. A National Bureau would give a character to our educational system which its importance deserves, and would place it in a position where its influence would be felt with greater power in the improvement of the national mind.

It is the tendency of mind to become accustomed to surrounding circumstances. Many of men's notions of the relative importance of ideas and things around them are the teachings of external life. Among the Greeks, Athena was the goddess of wisdom, the symbol of thought and the patron of heroism among men. To evince their appreciation of these traits, to keep alive an admiration of them and to stimulate the minds of the people to their possession, the magnificent temple of the Parthenon, dedicated to her, was erected on the Acropolis and in it was placed her statue, carved by the hand of their master artist, Phidias. How much did the statues and costly works of art erected in the streets of Paris by Napoleon I., serve to nourish in the mind of the French people an almost adoration for that mighty spirit of the Revolution and an enthusiasm for his reign.

So it is in the field of thought. Whatever idea is held prominently before the mind, whatever is the idea of the controlling power, will, because of this prominence, ultimately prevail with the people. The experience of those present affirms this. Has a teacher a predilection for a particular branch of instruction? It will not be long after he enters his school before there will be a greater fondness, if not a decided preference, for that particular study. Even if no prominence be given to that study, the teacher's mental disposition will become so impressed upon his pupils by his acts

and his manner of thought, that the same bias will unconsciously be given to their minds. Men have often secured their objects by keeping prominently before the minds of those they would influence, the motives by which they are guided. The action of legislatures has been influenced by the continued presentation, in various lights, of a measure sought to be adopted. The philosophical tendencies of a period in history have been determined by the ideas of a few powerful minds then predominant in the realm of thought.

The direct inference from these examples is, that this nation, founded upon the mental culture of the people, and dependent for its prosperity upon their intelligent action, can most completely insure its success by giving to educational agencies the power and influence of national adoption.

XV. TOWN, COUNTY, AND STATE ASSOCIATIONS

FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES.*

J. W. BULKLEY,

Superintendent of Public Schools, Brooklyn, N. Y

THE great principle of association was first enunciated by the Creator in Eden, when the Lord God said, "It is *not* good that man should be alone." In the family, the tribe, the state, the nation; we find this great truth exemplified. All history, sacred and profane, develop this idea clearly. In the history and progress of civilization, we find that just in proportion to the perfection of this bond that binds man to his fellow, in the community; also in united effort for the development of a given theory, whether in government, science, art, or literature, strength is found for the accomplishment of anything within the range of human possibilty.

In educational reform, this principle is indispensable to success. Isolated effort has accomplished much in every department of life. But what is individual compared with associated effort? An individual may be thoroughly versed in every department of learning; he may be apt to teach; have tact in management, power in government, and the "art Napoleon," in infusing his own ideas and spirit into the soul of his pupils, by a rigid discipline, careful training, and generous culture.

Here we may find progress, and in the right direction. Complete success crowns such efforts. But in this case, it is confined to a given locality, and circumscribed by very narrow limits. But let this same accomplished, successful educator enlarge the sphere of his action, by associating with the teachers of his town, or district, and still more important results will follow. In the first place, let the effort be informal and social; in the spirit of the learner, rather than that of the teacher; who should ever be ready to receive, while endeavoring to communicate truth. Thus confidence will be inspired, interest enlisted, a healthy public sentiment created, and hearty coöperation secured in the work of reform. Thus the way

* Delivered before the National Teachers' Association at Ogdensburg, N. Y., August, 1864.

may be prepared for a public movement of the town. Every instrumentality must now be brought to bear upon the friends of an improved system of education, and an elevation of the character of the schools of the town. In the public meeting a lecture may be given, an essay read, or discussion held, in which the reforms to be initiated should be clearly stated, and their importance magnified, by a fair contrast of the antiquated forms and methods of the past; and the soulless teaching, and irrational government of the schools, compared with that intellectual culture and parental discipline, found in a model school, and a well-trained family of the present; where love is the golden chain that binds all hearts, controls all action, and produces rich fruit. These meetings should be free and open to all, and the exercises untrammeled. Every teacher and parent should here feel at home, and at liberty to ask questions on any point relevant to the character of the meeting. The conversational, rather than the more formal meeting, will generally be the most interesting and useful in the commencement. In these exercises, systems of education, mental, moral and physical, methods of instruction, books, the order of studies in a given course, discipline and government, the warming and ventilating of school-rooms, and the seating of the same; all will receive attention; and in proportion to intelligent views and appropriate action, will contribute to a reform that must conduce to the elevation, progress, and happiness of all who come under their influence. By these instrumentalities and interchanges of views, new channels of thought are opened, new sympathies are developed, and a common bond of union created, which is full of promise for a glorious future. When a town has thus fairly initiated the work of reform, it will soon be seen that the circle of its influence is, silently it may be, but steadily enlarging, and anon the adjacent towns become interested and are desirous of securing similar results. The county now becomes the field, and each town is interested to secure the greatest amount of good, and is emulous of being second to no other in the county. What has been initiated in the town, is carried onward into the larger fields, and this becomes an object of great interest. The meetings now become proportionally more interesting, as well as larger than the town association. Power has thus been gained, and every movement carries with it an authority that commands the general respect, and coöperation of all thinking persons. In these primary meetings of the town and county associations, one of the first and most important efforts is the creation of a healthy, popular sentiment, in sympathy

with the general movement. The people must be made to see that their interests are deeply and directly involved; that they can not by any possible means contribute so directly to the wealth, prosperity, and happiness of the community, as by aiding in elevating and refining the public taste; promoting the highest tone of virtue and morality; raising the standard of popular education, and so far perfecting the same, that their children on attaining their majority, shall be men; having an intelligent and comprehensive idea of their interests, rights, and duties, social, relative, and public; that in any emergency, they shall not simply *know*, but know *how* to maintain and successfully perform them.

I think every intelligent observer of the times will agree with us in the idea, that in the history of the country, there never has been a period in which the great importance of a thorough education of the people, has been more imperative than in the present. Is it not heart-sickening in the extreme, to find in a survey of society, that the masses are under the control of a comparatively few designing men, and by them led or "like dumb cattle driven?" But let the people become thoroughly aroused to the importance of the interest we advocate, and they will see that to withhold their hearty coöperation, may prove the means of the destruction of those rights and privileges which they most love; the *destruction* of which would be the greatest calamity that could befall them. These primary associations of the town and county, naturally lead to the development of the institute for instruction, one of the most important means of improvement in the teacher. Here the teachers of a given locality meet at stated periods for the purpose of mutual improvement. All occupy a common platform, and all have a common aim; the elevation of the profession, the advancement and perfection of popular instruction, and the diffusion of correct views in every department of learning in the community.

With the town thoroughly awake and imbued with the right spirit, and the heart and soul of the county in unison with the same, then are we ready for a grand movement for the State association; an institution of the utmost importance in centralizing and unifying the educational energies of town and county, and thus bringing the power of the State to bear alike upon all parts of the Commonwealth.

In the enlarged field of the State there is abundant room, as well as occasion for the earnest, intelligent, and persevering labors of all interested in educational reform and progress. Here we shall find the zealous pioneer of the town association, and the warm-hearted

advocate of educational reform from the county. All now are prepared for simultaneous effort upon the State, and every interest concentrates upon this new basis of action. A conference of the leading minds of the State is held, views are interchanged, notes are compared, and the condition of the cause generally ascertained. A course of action is inaugurated, and an organization effected, the object of which is to enlist the friends of every educational department, effect such reforms as may be demanded, and perfect such a system of instruction as shall be equal to the wants of the State. With such a State organization, we think none can fail to see that the whole territory may be brought with comparative facility, under such influences as shall secure a healthy public sentiment in relation to popular education, and the elevation and prosperity of the schools of the entire State.

That such efforts as these have been remarkably successful in awakening interest, securing unity of action, and producing the most important results, is apparent in the numerous local and State associations formed in various parts of our country within the last twenty years. That farther efforts are still necessary, may be clearly seen in a survey of the States of the Union. In the seceded States, which we trust will ere long return to their allegiance, a large field will be opened where the most enlightened effort and intelligent action will be demanded to initiate such reforms, and prosecute such measures, as may secure to them the blessings of the wisest and most efficient system of public instruction. The new Territories and States which will soon be added to the constellation of States, will open new and inviting fields of labor, full of the promise of an abundant harvest. Our wisdom will be apparent in encouraging intelligent and associated efforts, for the promotion and establishment of the most liberal and comprehensive systems of education in every State of the Union.

XVI. OBJECT SYSTEM OF INSTRUCTION

AS PURSUED IN THE SCHOOLS OF OSWEGO.

BY H. B. WILBUR, M. D.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

In consenting to the publication of the following paper, read before the National Association of Teachers, at its last meeting, I am constrained, in justice to myself, to prefix a brief statement of the circumstances under which it was prepared.

Some two years since, I delivered an address before the New York State Teachers' Association. On that occasion I gave some account of my own peculiar work, the instruction of idiots. And as it seemed to me that my experience had some practical relations to the audience before me and to the topics just then somewhat prominent in the minds of American educators, I ventured to make the proper application. The "object system of instruction," so-called, was referred to at some length, and I indulged in some passing criticisms upon the peculiar methods of instruction adopted by the Home and Colonial Society of England, which some persons were laboring to introduce into this country.

That I was not a conservative in an obnoxious sense in my educational views, an outline of what was then said upon these two points will sufficiently show.

I attempted to set forth the doctrine, by implication rather than by any very distinct enunciation, that there were two kinds of knowledge, the one which may be styled natural and the other conventional. I remarked that the education related to the former began where instinct ceases, and consisted of a judicious ministering of the proper aliment to the intuitive powers. And I endeavored to point out the true function of the teacher, in respect to this natural education.

I then added that, as in point of time, so in harmony with the natural order of development of the human faculties, was it fit and proper that the acquisition of natural should precede that of conventional knowledge, and that the former was the best foundation for the superstructure of the latter. The summary statement of my argument upon the subject was, "that we should educate the senses and through the senses, the intelligence and will, and then apply and subordinate the engendered habits of accurate observation and the cultivated intellectual activity and power to a proper method of acquiring the elementary studies and their outgrowing attainments."

It seemed to me then that, if these views were correct, they had a twofold application. In the first place, that our system of primary school instruction, confining itself, as it had hitherto done, mainly to elementary studies of a conventional character, should be modified by the introduction of a preliminary class of exercises, designed especially to cultivate the faculties of observation. That the elementary branches should be taught in such a manner as not to blunt the perceptive faculties. Of course, the natural outgrowth of these two provisions would be, that the apparent acquirements of the school-room would represent the actual mental power and knowledge of the pupils.

In the second place, sympathizing, as I have before said, fully with the aims of those seeking reform in the principles and methods of elementary instruction, I yet could not fail to see or avoid making an application of the principles I had developed, to the correction of certain grievous errors some of these well disposed friends of education had fallen into.

I know how short is the usual school-attending period of the great mass of the children for whom our school system is framed. Avoiding, therefore, all educational scheming, I would have that system so sound in its principles, and so judicious in its methods, that it may leave these children, on the threshhold of the apprentice stage of life, with all their natural endowments so brought into willing and active exercise by preliminary training, that nothing in the whole world of relation, designed for their improvement or pleasure, should be thereafter unappropriated; that by its thorough drill in the strictly elementary branches of learning, it should so furnish them with the keys to all educational knowledge, that their future attainments should be limited only by the necessities of their peculiar lot.

In noticing the English system of instruction mentioned, I dwelt mainly upon what I then regarded as its error in the introduction of science at too early a stage in the work of education, not only in the form of positive science, but in the scientific aspect in which the common matters of daily life and observation were treated, and also the abuse of language involved in their practice.

The errors into which I feared the over-zealous advocates of the "object system" might fall proved to be no chimeras. An evil, which, with the respect I felt for American teachers, I then deprecated as somewhat remote, has become more imminent. A foreign educational scheme, partial, bigoted, and unphilosophical, is now naturalized in the country, and its universal propagation demanded by zealous advocates. The "Oswego System" is the new impress that is to give it currency on this side the water.

To increase the deception, the very text-books of the English system have been brought over and (to the scandal of American publishers it must be confessed) with no alteration, save a little upsetting and a turning wrong end foremost of here and there a section, have been issued as of American authorship.

Impulsive friends of education have somewhat indiscreetly indorsed it, by speaking of Oswego as "the Mecca of American teachers;" and of the movement as "a reform which is welcomed by the best minds of the age, which has been prophesied and prayed for by the best lights of other years."

Even some persons, who should have been more discriminating, looking only at the motives of its partisans, have good naturedly given it a vague countenance, as ladies sometimes give a "character" to a stupid or shiftless domestic, who "means well."

Besides, in the State of New York, legislation has been successfully invoked to establish a school for training teachers in the methods of a foreign school society—of dubious reputation at home—outside of its Normal School, which is supposed to have been created for the very purpose of educating teachers in the most approved methods of instruction of every grade and wherever originating.

With these circumstances in view, when invited to prepare a paper for the last meeting of the National Association of Teachers, on the "Object System," a sense of duty constrained me to accept. And I ventured on a discussion of the subject which I knew must be inadequate, if for no other reasons, that I was precluded from presenting the most obvious objections to the system, inasmuch as I had done this on a previous occasion, and because also the invitation I received from the Executive Committee of the Association rather limited me to a half hour and which I endeavored not to transcend.

THE OSWEGO SYSTEM OF OBJECT INSTRUCTION.

THE topic assigned me for the present half hour is the "Object System" of instruction. To avoid all misapprehension, I may say at the outset, that I shall confine myself mainly to some thoughts in connection with what is called in this country the "Oswego System." This is substantially a system of instruction transplanted from England, and known there as the Home and Colonial Society's system of instruction. The circumstances attending the adoption of this foreign system on this side of the water need not be stated, except in the most general terms. The zealous Superintendent of the public schools of Oswego, (whom I need not name,) in common with many holding similar relations to the schools of other cities, felt the need of some change in the methods of instruction prevailing in the primary departments. The want he felt he thought well supplied by the English system alluded to. With zeal and energy he set himself to the task of introducing it in his own proper field of labor. He has accomplished this—and more. We find the same system now urged upon the friends of education everywhere for a similar adoption. And so it comes fairly before a National Association of Teachers for discussion.

It hardly need be said to those who are familiar with the history of the educational reform, inaugurated in this country nearly forty years ago, that the new want I have spoken of, as being generally felt by a certain class, was not to be satisfied by the search for, or the finding of any new principles of education.

The new problem offered to those interested was, how shall we apply, in the earlier stages of school instruction, most wisely and most fruitfully, principles of education generally recognized and acknowledged in this country?

I say generally recognized and acknowledged in this country. This is not too much to say, for here more than elsewhere—almost only here—were sound principles and methods of instruction generally prevalent. The reasons are obvious. The American mind is unusually active upon educational subjects, for theoretically our republican form of government is based upon universal education, and an education not peculiar to a caste or rank in society. Again, the great majority of our educated men have been practical teachers for longer or shorter periods of their lives. Look for a moment at the history of education during the period mentioned, a history adorned

with the names of many eminent men. A history that furnishes abundant evidence of much thought in the elucidation of principles and in the devising of methods. Notice the machinery of the educational movement; the essays and discussions, the public addresses and the multiplied associations for mutual improvement; the Teachers' institutes and the Normal schools; the literature of the profession of the teacher embracing everything worthy of record, whether in the way of personal thought or individual experience, the world being tributary; not forgetting the periodical contributions from every quarter. Further, mark the resulting evidence of all this labor well performed in the general public interest, in the judicious legislation, and in the wonderful improvement in text-books. And again, notice the light incidentally furnished by special systems of education. The result of this general awakening in the public mind upon the subject of education, I hardly need to say, though reaching to the principles most fundamental, was not manifested by measures violent, hasty, or subversive. The reform kept step with the advance of an enlightened public sentiment, if at times it were one step in advance. It were well if the future waves of improvement in the same direction should roll as quietly and steadily forward on the shores of coming time.

But a graded system of school instruction brings out a new want. A large class of children are brought together, with little or no previous instruction, and almost too young for the continuous attention and thought required to master the elementary branches of the school-room, as taught in the ordinary way. They are deprived of those educational influences that so pervaded the atmosphere of the school-room of mixed grades and which insinuated themselves into every avenue to the active mind of childhood. They are now dependent for improvement upon the exercise of their own intuitive powers and upon the resources of the teacher.

We need not stop to discuss the question, whether, viewed in relation to the proper orderly and harmonious development of their faculties, these children should be in school at all, thus early, for in school they are. And so it happens, that under the new circumstances, that which should be the work of nature, is brought within the function of the teacher, and accordingly new topics and methods of instruction must be introduced. It hardly need be pointed out with what extreme diffidence we should approach any task that involves any interference with nature's methods, or how zealous should be the endeavor when such interference is necessitated to follow her analogous teachings, and how promptly we should cease our inter-

ference at the first moment practicable. The natural channels to the pupil's mind are first to be opened before they can be used for receiving or imparting instruction. Again, the natural avenues are to be used before what may be called the conventional ones are brought in requisition. And so the powers of observation and speech (or spoken language) are to be cultivated before any positive instruction in reading and writing is attempted. Cultivated it should be remembered for purposes and ends mainly practical and disciplinary. Has it occurred to those of you who have seen blind children spelling out with busy fingers and delighted faces the page of raised letters and thus receiving food for their active minds through a channel wrought out for them by the agency of a sense perverted from its legitimate function, that in teaching ordinary children to read from the printed, or written page, the same thing is substantially done; that is, the eye is made to perform the natural office of the ear—that a new gift is imparted.

One result of bringing together children of the same grade is, to bring out more distinctly the class mental peculiarities, the class educational needs, and so more obviously the proper modes of meeting those needs. I have elsewhere stated, in a summary way, my idea of the scope and aim of a proper elementary education, which I will venture to reproduce. "That we should educate the senses and through the senses, the intelligence and will, and then apply and subordinate the engendered habits of accurate observation and the cultivated intellectual activity and power, to proper methods of acquiring the elementary studies and their outgrowing attainments."

In seeking to accomplish the ends thus defined, the main reliance of the educator is upon a proper study and comprehension of the characteristics of childhood, the natural order, mode, and rate of development of the childish faculties. The proof of this is furnished by recalling any synoptical statement of the principles of education, and noticing how many of them relate to these very points. It is of importance to remember this because much time and labor have been lately wasted in devising methods of instruction based upon foundations merely speculative, and some injury done by attempting to put these methods in practice. I may illustrate this by citing two or three forms of theoretical error in this regard representing quite a diversity of opinion—all "idols of the cave."

The first of these is a method based upon a theory that every child must "rediscover for himself the truths and results to be acquired in each department of knowledge undertaken by the learner," and the corollary from this, "that no truth or knowledge which is

in its nature a consequent on some other truths or knowledge can by any possibility be in reality attained by any mind, until after that mind has first secured and rightly appreciated those antecedent truths or knowings." This involves, it will be observed, a form of instruction always absolutely synthetical. This is partially true —true as far as intuitive education is concerned and true no farther.

Another error, not unheard of by this Association, is a theory that there is a rational order of development in the course of the sciences, and that it ought to be followed in common education; for the reason that it is claimed that this order of succession in the sciences corresponds precisely to the order of evolution of the faculties. Now this is an assumption based upon the most fanciful analogies, but as I find it asserted with great emphasis, in a report to which my own name is signed, I leave it for others to deal with.

One other theory deserves a passing notice. It will be found elaborated by Herbert Spencer and cropping out quite generally in the essays and discussions that have since appeared upon educational topics. After admitting the distinction between education as relates to discipline and to the value of the knowledge acquired, he at once assumes that what is best for the one end is also best for the other. He then proceeds to develop a scheme for education based upon the relative and practical uses of knowledge. If his course of reasoning proves anything it proves that physiology should be the first study of childhood, then the means of getting a livelihood, then the treatment of offspring and the government of children, and finally the study of social science.

Let me now examine briefly the mode in which the Oswego System aims to accomplish the ends I have supposed. To be sure it claims to be more than a system of Primary School instruction. It claims to be the only correct system for any stage of education. "That if adopted, it will lead to a complete revolution in our methods of teaching in this country," (where it is asserted "we have never had any system based on sound philosophical principles,) as also in the profession of teaching itself, or rather it will *make teaching a profession*—a title it has yet to earn."

In making a somewhat hurried preparation for the part assigned me on this occasion, I have spent some time in the examination of the various manuals designed for the instruction of teachers in the new system. I confess the result has been somewhat discouraging. The principles laid down are somewhat contradictory in their character. They are wanting in definiteness, and, most of all, they are

so enveloped in the voluminous details of methods, that it is difficult to discover the distinctive features, and somewhat confusing to one attempting to discuss them.

Referring then to the Oswego manuals, I find first a statement of what are called Pestalozzian plans and principles. On examination, I find that some latitude has been used in applying the term Pestalozzian. Transmutation as well as translation will be seen in their treatment of the great reformer. It may be remarked of these generally, that whatever of them are sound have not the claim of novelty to American teachers, and what are new of no value, if not leading to positive error.

1. Activity is a law of childhood. Accustom the child to do—educate the hand.
2. Cultivate the faculties in their natural order—first form the mind, then furnish it.
3. Begin with the senses, and never tell a child what he can discover for himself.
4. Reduce every subject to its elements—one difficulty at a time is enough for a child.
5. Proceed step by step. Be thorough. The measure of information is not what the teacher can give, but what the child can receive.
6. Let every lesson have a point, except in junior schools, where more than one lesson is required before the point is reached, each successively tending towards it.
7. Develop the idea—then give the term—cultivate language.
8. Proceed from the known to the unknown—from the particular to the general—from the concrete to the abstract—from the simple to the more difficult.
9. First synthesis, then analysis—not the order of the subject, but the order of nature.

Let us examine these principles briefly.

"1st. Activity is a law of childhood. Accustom the child to do —educate the hand."

It will be observed, first, that there is an implied restriction of this law of childhood to his physical system. Of the second clause —should it not rather be said, let the child do. Let him use not only his hands, but his physical system generally. The distinction between letting the child do and accustoming him to do, at this early stage, is an important one, and is related (if activity is a general law of childhood) not only to physical actions, but also to the senses and the faculties which act spontaneously on the presentation of their proper objects. Should not a system of so much pretension direct us wisely here on the very threshhold?

"2d. Cultivate the faculties in their natural order—first form the mind, then furnish it."

The truth enunciated here is older than Pestalozzi; and may be found in some form or another in half the works on education published in this country during the last thirty years. As to the second

clause, one might naturally ask, is it a corollary from the first? or only meant as a reiteration? or what?

"3d. Begin with the senses, and never tell a child what he can discover for himself."

What is the designed relation between the two clauses of this rule? Must we never tell a child what he can discover for himself?

"4th. Reduce every subject to its elements—one difficulty at a time is enough for a child."

This seems a harmless proposition. But the practical inferences in the way of method, that the manuals are full of, gives it another aspect.

"5th. Proceed step by step. Be thorough. The measure of information is not what the teacher can give, but what the child can receive."

Would not these directions indicate that the process of education is not always and strictly a development exercise, in which the child is the main actor?

"7th. Develop the idea—then give the term—cultivate language."

If this rule were designed only to enforce the truth that ideas should precede language, no comment would be necessary. But herewith is connected one of the most vicious methods of the Oswego System. In the light of their practical teachings it means that with the idea the term must be invariably connected; that the observation and language must be inseparably connected. And it is assumed that when the idea is mastered, there is no difficulty in retaining the appropriate term on the part of the pupil.

It is claimed that the peculiar phraseology of the summary is strictly a resultant of the workings of the class mind. And so we find in connection with each lesson, or series of observations, the W. B. (writing on the board) and the S. R (simultaneous repetition) to fix in the pupil's mind the set phrase and the stereotyped formula that the teacher furnishes as the summary of the particular class exercise.

But the partisans of the Oswego System, or their progenitors in England, were not the original sinners. It was precisely here where Pestalozzi went so grievously astray from his own early principles, as to draw from one of his cotemporaries the remark, that "he kicked over with his feet what he built up with his hands." And these very practices of his have been discarded by intelligent educators everywhere, even when professedly following the doctrines of the German school.

"Observation (said he) is the absolute basis of all knowledge.

The first object, then, in education must be, to lead a child to observe with accuracy; the second, to express with correctness the result of his observations." There is abundant evidence from his works that he did not mean by this, that observation should be the principal object of instruction at its earlier stage and language at a later period. The English and Oswego disciples have faithfully copied the defects of their master.

Now is it necessary to affirm in this presence, that language has absolutely nothing to do with observation as far as it concerns the pupil? That the observing powers are exercised for a long period in childhood before the gift of language is received, and that the child not only uses the senses, but discriminates, compares, reasons, judges, decides, and wills in connection with such use of the senses, and all this without the use of any language?

But the time comes when language is necessary for the expression of wants and ideas, and then it is given. In the roll of education the teacher avails himself of this natural gift, this child-language, to test the progress of the child, and so it is properly connected with observation and with the growth of ideas.

Again, a period comes when language which has been acquired intuitively, and without any conscious effort on the part of the child, may be properly a subject of positive instruction, by methods so wisely suggested in the opening address of the President of this Association; for when the higher and reflective powers of the mind are brought into active exercise, language precise and adequate becomes necessary as the means of thought.

Language (let me repeat again) which in the infancy of the individual, as well as that of the race, is a mere means of expressing the immediate wants of the individual or the race in its then condition; expands not only commensurately with increasing desires, but absolutely acquires another function; that is, as the instrument of higher, continuous, and abstract thought; and this fact, or the growth of language to meet social needs, suggests the principle that should guide in the introduction of language, as an exercise in the school-room. I have on another occasion referred to this topic and so I can only hint at the dangers of thus early and intimately connecting the study of language with the development of the faculties of observation. The thing signified is lost in the effort to remember the sign. Have you not all seen a bright boy in a class, who could and would answer almost intuitively a question in numbers like the following, hesitate and stammer, grow confused and fail, in attempting to cloak the fully comprehended truth in the long syllogistic formula required of him by the teacher? Thus—

If 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, what will 4 bunches cost? The pupil repeats the question and gives the solution.

If 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, what will 4 bunches cost? 1 bunch of matches will cost one-half as much as 2 bunches of matches. If 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, 1 bunch of matches will cost one-half of 4 cents, which are 2 cents. 4 bunches of matches will cost 4 times as much as 1 bunch of matches. If 1 bunch cost 2 cents, 4 bunches will cost 4 times 2 cents, which are 8 cents. Therefore, if 2 bunches of matches cost 4 cents, 4 bunches of matches will cost 8 cents.

The very tendency of formulated language is to routine. The foundations of the childish memory and the childish principle of association are upset, and the natural observation of childhood entirely devitalized. But an illustration, furnished by the same master-hand that gave us the Yorkshire boarding-school, will answer my purpose better.

No teacher before me, who has read Dickens' "Hard Times," will fail to recall the following scene:—

Mr. Gradgrind, the town magnate and school patron, is present in the model school of his own creation, where Mr. McChoakumchild surcharges the youthful Coke-towners with grim facts. After a preliminary address to the teachers in this vein—

"Now what I want is facts. Teach these boys and girls nothing but facts. Facts alone are wanted in life. Plant nothing else, and root out everything else. You can only form the mind of reasoning animals upon facts; nothing else will ever be of any service to them. This is the principle upon which I bring up my own children, and this is the principle on which I bring up these children. Stick to facts, Sir!"

Having thus relieved himself, that his self-love may be gratified by witnessing the triumphs of his own educational scheming, he calls out, by an appropriate management and catechising, its distinctive features.

Sissy Jupe, Girl No. 20, the daughter of a strolling circus actor, whose life, no small share of it, has been passed under the canvass; whose knowledge of horse, generic and specific, extends back as far as memory reaches; familiar with the form and food, the powers and habits and everything relating to the horse; knowing it through several senses; Sissy Jupe has been asked to define horse. Astonished at hearing her father stigmatized as a veterinary surgeon, a farrier and horse-breaker; bewildered by the striking want of resemblance between the horse of her own conceptions and the prescribed formula that represents the animal in the books of the Home and Colonial Society, she dares not trust herself with the confusing description, and shrinks from it in silence and alarm.

"Girl No. 20 unable to define a horse," said Mr. Gradgrind. Girl No. 20 is declared possessed of no facts in reference to one of the commonest of animals, and appeal is made to one red-eyed Bitzer, who knows horse practically only as he has seen a picture of a horse, or as he has, perhaps, sometimes safely weathered the perils of a crowded street crossing.

"Bitzer," (said Thomas Gradgrind,) "your definition of a horse!"

"Quadruped. Graminivorous. Forty teeth, namely: twenty-four grinders, four eye teeth, and twelve incisive. Sheds coat in the Spring; in marshy countries sheds hoofs too. Hoofs hard, but requiring to be shod with iron. Age known by marks in mouth." Thus (and much more) Bitzer.

"Now Girl No. 20," said Mr. Gradgrind, "you know what a horse is."

The features of a school system thus graphically described are the features of the Home and Colonial Society's system, and I regret to say that what is known in this country as the Oswego System is its lineal descendant.

That this is no misrepresentation (see lessons on objects, page 97.)

LESSON TWENTY-THIRD.

A Lady Bird.

Ideas to be developed—hemispherical, fragile, jointed.

Parts.	*Qualities.*
The head	It is animal.
" eyes	Natural.
" feelers or palpi	Hemispherical.
" horns or antennæ	The wing cases are red.
" wings	Spotted.
" wing cases or elytra	Bright.
" thorax	Hard.
" legs	The wing cases are brittle.
" body	Opaque.
" back	Stiff.
" spots	The outside is convex.
" surface	The inside is concave.
" claws	One margin straight.
	The other curved.
	The wings are membranaceous,
	" pliable,
	" thin,
	" transparent,
	" fragile.
	The body is oval,
	" black.
	The legs are jointed,
	" short,
	" black.

The lesson above cited is one of a large number sketched for the use of teachers; all models for still others of a similar character to be framed as they shall be needed, and designed to cover the whole period of school instruction. Is such endless repetition of obvious qualities a natural and nourishing food for the childish mind? Will it never tire of such thin gruel of utilitarianism? And looking at the real object of a public school system as our own, supported from the public treasury, designed to obviate the accidents of birth or fortune, by placing the keys of knowledge in every youthful hand, is such chaff a substitute for a thorough grounding in the elementary branches? is it a good preparation, even, for the same? But conceding that these exercises accomplish the end for which they were designed, is it not a cultivation of the perceptive faculties too exclusive, and at the expense of the other powers of the pupil?

It is claimed, however, that thus are laid the foundations for a future structure of science; that we ascend from form to geometry, from place to geography, &c., &c. Than this nothing can be more mistaken. Perceptions of form and color are quite distinct from geometry and chromatography. Language is one thing, and the science of grammar quite another.

That scientific and technical language is prematurely introduced in the methods adopted at Oswego, no one can question who visits the Oswego schools. One hears little children, not two weeks under instruction, taught that certain parts of a sheep (or the picture of a sheep) are "principal," others "secondary," and some "characteristic." One hears from infant mouths such terms as "graminiverous and chalybeate, iridescent and amorphous, serrated and foliaceous, imbricated and indigenous." Children there are taught not only to discriminate, with the eye, the various shades and hues of color, but loaded down with such terms as hyaline, watchet, lazuline, indigene, carneline, rosine, coraline, venetia, morone, salmonine, peachine, and magenta.

The 9th and last principle laid down is the following:—"First synthesis, then analysis—not the order of the subject, but the order of nature." I leave for others to discuss the first clause of the rule. I may venture this inquiry, however. If it be true "that all intelligent action whatever depends upon the discerning of distinctions among surrounding things," does not this principle require that analysis should be the first step in the work of education? And further, as one examines the specimen lessons in the Oswego textbooks, even, does it not appear that so far as the exercise of the observing faculties is properly conducted, it is pure analysis, while the mere framing of the definition or the formulated summary can only be called synthetical.

The last clause, ("not the order of the subject, but the order of nature,") whatever its supposed relation to the former, contains an important truth which I would thus interpret. All subjects should be presented to a child in view of the order in which his faculties are developed; in connection with his already existing ideas, as they may be indicated by the form in which his curiosity manifests itself, or otherwise, that they may be retained by some principle of association; and also in relation to their practical value and uses, as acquirements and discipline, for the time being. And contrariwise, they should not be presented in relation to any assumed order of knowledge or any scientific arrangement or classification. (I am speaking now especially of those subjects which, in the primary school-room and in the case of young children, should precede and furnish the foundation of what are ordinarily regarded as the elementary studies.) Scientific names, definitions and classification are designed for a special and practical purpose; and that purpose, manifestly, not related to the instruction of infants or the early history of our race. A young child (and for that matter the savage)

has no practical use for science and therefore does not need its technicalities. What he does need are words, figurative expressions, or a classification connected in a living way to his senses, his observation, his experience, the range of his reasoning powers, and by the use of which he can remember, reproduce, or communicate to another his sensations and ideas.

The scientific mode should be reserved for a later period of instruction, when science, as such, has, by the development of the pupil, acquired a practical value.

For modern science, be it remembered, (and herein it differs from the older forms,) is, from its very nature, far removed from the range of a child's observation, and has no obvious relations to the little, every-day world in which he lives and moves. It is based upon structure and organs, and unobvious, and to the child, unimportant properties, and includes, what Spencer has called, "completeness of prevision." And though there are certain external features which ordinarily indicate, to the eye of the expert, the peculiarities of internal structure, yet the connection can not be appreciated at an immature age.

So true is this, that I find a modern writer of great logical acuteness thus expressing himself:—

> Science, as I shall afterwards have occasion to illustrate, is painful from the necessity of dis-associating appearances that go naturally and easily together, of renouncing the full and total aspect of an object by which it engages agreeably the various senses, and of settling upon some feature that has no interest to the common eye.*

I have ventured to elaborate what seemed to me to be the truth contained in the clause under discussion. But that this is not the interpretation of it adopted by the advocates of the Oswego System may be seen by referring either to a single model lesson, or to the general method of treating a particular subject. Take, by way of illustration, almost the first lesson in the manual. It is a development exercise to cultivate the powers of observation. The children are first told that paper is artificial, that it is made of linen rags, that linen is made from the stem of a plant called flax. They then observe its obvious qualities; they are next supplied with the terms pliable, translucent, inflammable, &c.

But one must not stop upon individual lessons, but take subjects.

What I am now about to say is related also to principle No. 4—"Reduce every subject to its elements."

Take the method of teaching reading. If one takes up a printed page it may be resolved into lines, these lines into words, the words

* Bain. "The Senses and Intellect."

is nature's method." I can not stop to outline this word-method by showing how completely it follows the order of nature.

I will call your attention now, briefly, to the Oswego method of teaching drawing. It commences from combinations with two straight lines, then with three, and so on up to seven or eight. Then combinations with four right and two acute angles, then with obtuse angles. Combinations with four rectangular triangles. Combinations with the various quadrangular figures. Then combinations with the various curves. This is all elementary to geometrical drawing. This doubtless has its uses. This is better than no instruction in drawing, perhaps.

But that this is not the way to teach drawing as an art, or for the practical and pleasurable uses which render its acquisition desirable, I think that the great mass of experts will agree. Spencer speaks of an elementary drawing-book, on a similar plan, as most vicious in principle, as only "a grammar of form with exercises." Ruskin is equally emphatic in recommending an entirely different course.

The same regard to the order of the subject and disregard of the order of nature is seen in the selection and arrangement of topics for the object lessons; in the scientific tone that pervades the whole series, and in the early introduction of science (distinctly) into their educational course; as if this were unavoidable in attempting to impart any useful knowledge to the child.

The late Archbishop Whately disposed of this opinion epigrammatically by asking, "Can not a child be taught that a nettle will sting without being taught the science of botany?"

That these are not unwarranted criticisms on the Oswego methods, let me appeal to the manuals in which they are embodied. The extracts illustrative of methods may be appropriately introduced by a few sentences selected either from preface or introduction, somewhat in the form of precepts.

"The design of this work is to present a definite course of elementary instruction adapted to philosophic views of the laws of childhood."

"It would seem too obvious to require an argument that every teacher"—(and for that matter, it might have been added, every superintendent of public schools and each school-book compiler) "should clearly comprehend the character of the infant mind and its mode of operation."

That a proper lesson "should equally avoid detailed information, on the one hand, and on the other, mere general notices, such as constitute a table of contents or heading of a chapter."

"That it is important, as far as possible, to give the children a good deal of latitude; and let the discoveries be their own, except as they may be guided in part by the teacher."

"Those who fall into a mechanical way of giving such instruction and do not perceive the principle involved, completely defeat its intention and *they had far better keep to old plans and old books.*" The italics are mine.

Turn now to "Lessons on objects," (page 132 and the following.)

It is the "fourth step," or designed for children of seven or eight years old. The subject is the metals. Seven pages are devoted to the general subject. The mode of their occurrence is given; their distinguishing "characters;" their properties as reflectors of light and heat, as conductors of heat and electricity. The specific gravity of ten are given in numbers to the third decimal. The weight of a cubic foot of the common metals is also given. They are told the number of tons that rods an inch square, of the common metals, will severally sustain without breaking. Detailed information upon the other general properties are likewise furnished by the teacher, to an extent that will suggest the thought that not only is "a good deal of latitude given the children," but some degree of longitude. Then follow eight model lessons on as many metals, in which the properties, qualities, uses, geographical and geological relations are given with almost encyclopedic particularity; though not always with the accuracy desirable in a text-book.

We will now open the other manual, "Elementary Instruction." As in the former case, take the "fourth step," the children of the same age as before. Under the head of "objects," (page 134,) "Sketches on the Bible." In another place it is stated "that the general aim of the teacher in a Bible lesson is to produce a religious impression." Let us see how this is done.

10. SKETCHES ON THE BIBLE.

Having drawn from the class, by a few direct and simple questions, that the Bible was not always a printed book—was not first written in English—was not bestowed on mankind at once, complete from Genesis to Revelation, but in detached parts; and having told them to consider the successive portions in which it was given, the language in which it was first written, and the form in which it then appeared, the children ought to be in possession of most of the facts referred to; therefore, during the greater part of the lessons, the business of the teacher would be to lead them to collect and arrange what they already know.

I. *Scripture—in what portions given, and at what period.*

1st. Possessors of Scripture—the Hebrew nation. Not when we first recognize it in Egypt, but previous to the settlement in Canaan. Date of this event. At that time the Israelites had the writings of Moses, probably including one or two of the Psalms, and the book of Job. Thence to the first captivity they received successively the books of Joshua, Judges, Samuel, Kings, Chronicles, the writings of David, those of his son, a portion of the greater and most of the lesser prophets. After the return, the narratives of Ezra, Nehemiah and Esther, with the three last prophetical books. Date of the return.

2d. Books of the New Testament period. Also considered with respect to writers, titles, and oracles. Date of conclusion of Scripture. Text learned: Hebrews i, 1—"God, who at sundry times and in divers manners spake in times past unto the fathers of the prophets, hath in these last days spoken unto us by His Son."

II. *Language—that in which Scripture was first written—translations.*

1st. Every revelation prior to the date of the first captivity made in Hebrew. This accounted for. Books of Daniel and Ezra written partly in Hebrew and partly in Chaldee. Lead the class to infer the probable reason of this, from consideration as to the subject of the portions written in Chaldee; principally such

as include original letters, decrees, &c., of the Babylonish and Persian governments. Scriptures posterior to the date of the captivity written in Chaldee, and all the earlier books translated into the same tongue. No sooner did the ancient Hebrew become a dead language, than the Scriptures were put into the vernacular tongue by men, such as Ezra, acting under the immediate inspiration of God. Conclusion drawn from this, and text learned, showing the importance of understanding the Word of God: 1 Cor. xiv, 19—"I had rather speak five words with my understanding, that by my voice I might teach others also, than ten thousand words in an unknown tongue."

2d. The coming of the time in which the Gentiles were to be led to a knowledge of the truth, marked by the dispersion of the Scriptures among them. Providence of God shown in this. Its design and effect. Give general account of various translations, and particular one on the Septuagint. Refer to, and prove the importance of, the last translation. Refer to prevalence of the Greek tongue in every part of the civilized world, as connected providentially with the publication of the Gospel in that language.

To connect this period with what follows, touch very briefly on the general professions of Christianity. Division of the Roman Empire and subsequent spread of the Greek and Roman Catholic churches. Progress of the latter. Extent of her power. Change with respect to the language of the Bible. Scripture written in Latin throughout all the countries of the Western Empire.

III. *Forms under which the Scriptures have been presented at different periods.*

1st. Derivation of the terms Bible and Scripture. Sacred words of the Jews' writings. Not books. Kind of materials chiefly used, either parchment or vellum. Scroll—when not in use, rolled up on a slender cylinder like a school map; hence, origin of the term *volume*. Refer to the Scribes. Their office. Importance and accuracy of their labors.

2d. Describe sacred records of Christians in the Middle Ages. Illuminated MSS. What they were. Why so called? Sometimes rolls, oftener books. Beauty and value of these copies. The copyists—what class of men they were. Their mode of life, position, and character, compared with that of the Jewish Scribes.

3d. Sacred records in the modern form. Class observe their own Bibles, and state how they differ externally from those before described. Why composed of many sheets bound together, not of one rolled up? Why made of paper rather than parchment? Why no longer MSS.? Give brief account of the invention of printing and its immediate consequence. The great multiplication of copies. Effect of the distribution of these all over the world. Specimens of Scriptural translations in one hundred and forty-eight languages were to be seen at the Great Exhibition. Compare God's present method of making known Himself and His will, to that He adopted in the Apostolic age. Then, supernatural gift of tongues, enabling the Apostles so to preach that all could understand. Why necessary then? Now, the same object effected without a miracle, by the translation of the Bible into different languages, so that the nations may still say, "We do hear them speak in our tongues the wonderful works of God."—Acts ii, 11.

IV. *Unchangeableness of the inspired word—its influence.*

Bible to be regarded as a perfect whole. The New Testament not an abrogation, but a development of the principles contained in the Old. Text: Matthew v, 17, 18. This might be proved by reference to the nature of God, but is evidently seen by the invariable influence of the Scriptures on the condition of man in all ages and countries. Compare the mental and moral condition of the Jews prior to their first captivity, with that of the nations surrounding them. Refer to countries in which the Bible is unknown at this day; without exception, utterly barbarous and degraded. Refer to countries in which its doctrines are rejected, and yet, because the people have learned something of the historical events recorded in it, because its precepts (though their origin is not recognized) are interwoven with social laws, they take a far higher rank. Instance, Mohammedans. Refer to countries in which the Scriptures are held to be true, and the people do not read them, because the ecclesiastical power has put a seal on the book. These are better off than those before named, for they hear of the name, and know somewhat of the character of Jesus, and through the thick mists of tradition the light of the Word will sometimes shine.

Conclusion drawn—that the Bible is a great engine of civilization, as well as the source of spiritual knowledge. Effect of its free circulation throughout the land. Refer to the renovation now commenced in heathen lands, from the spread of Scriptures and spiritual teaching. Duty incumbent on us to place the Bible in the households of our own and other countries. We may anticipate the promised blessing, that they who water others shall themselves be watered.

Now imagine, if you please, a teacher of a public school standing in the presence of a class of pupils between the ages of seven and twelve, composed of such material as will be found in our cities and large towns, "talking like this book," and tell me, will such themes, thus presented, conduce to any feelings worthy of the name of religious impressions? Is such instruction in accordance with "philosophic views of the laws of childhood?" Do you smile at the absurdity of the extracts I have given?—there is hardly a page in either of the two volumes of Oswego gospel but contains matter equally ridiculous. The fact is, this peculiar adaptation of Pestalozzianism could hardly be otherwise, for though fresh from an American press, it yet had its origin in what may be called the dark ages of educational history in England; that is, some thirty years ago.

[There is a difficulty attending the proper treatment of this subject. I mentioned at the outset the considerations which made it a suitable theme for discussion in even a national assemblage of teachers. But when one exposes the fallacy of any of the principles, the absurdity of any of the methods, up start the advocates of the system and repudiate the obnoxious features, or claim that these are but experiments, looking towards something to be perfected in the alembic of the future. And when the vicious tendencies of the system, as a whole, are pointed out, then these same parties fall back upon the quality of their motives.

But the very exclusiveness of their theory forbids any hope of improvement with the best intentions that underlie it.

They are on record at the very outset in this wise. The system as presented to the American public is claimed to embody "the light and experience of the best schools of Europe, where these methods have been longest and most thoroughly tested." That it is "a *definite course of elementary instruction* adapted to philosophic views of the laws of childhood," &c., &c.

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But the time allotted will not permit me to pass in review other features of the so-called Oswego System, equally objectionable.

The task I have already performed would have been a disagreeable one, even if, with more time and preparation, I could have flattered myself that it had been well done. It is still more so, conscious as I am of its imperfectness. But it is important that the work of primary instruction should be well conducted. And it is claimed for the Oswego System, by its advocates, that in no other way can this be accomplished than by the methods prescribed in the books from which I have quoted. The State of New York has given a legislative sanction to the justness of this claim, by appropriatiug money for the support of a training school for teachers, where these principles and methods are adopted and applied. The legislatures of other States will doubtless be invited to follow this example.

I regard the whole scheme as unwise and defective. A sense of duty has therefore constrained me to call the attention of the teachers of the country to the subject, that others more nearly related to our common school system, and otherwise more competent than myself, may hereafter more thoroughly expose its vicious tendencies.]

I would not, even now, be understood as discouraging, in the slighest degree, the addition to our present modes of primary school instruction of any new or desirable features, or the adoption of any new methods to meet new educational wants, from whatever source obtained.

I will venture to illustrate my idea. It was my good fortune not many months ago to visit, under favorable circumstances, the schools of a western city.* I saw there the evidences of a most intelligent supervision, by one familiar with the whole subject of American education, and who had carefully studied the principles and methods of instruction in other lands. I saw a corps of teachers, from highest to lowest, intelligent, active, animated by a full sense of the importance of their work and imbued with the same spirit that controlled the supervision. I saw the usual elementary course in our common schools, preceded by, associated with, and supplemented by well selected oral lessons that made the whole a living form of education. Viewing the pupils as individuals, I saw that a natural and suitable aliment was so wisely spread before each mind as to insure the proper grasp and growth, and as a consequence, mental activity and strength. Looking at them as classes, I beheld each grade of pupils, in the school-rooms, responsive to every word and look and thought of the teacher.

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* These Portraits will be found in No. 40, (New Series, No. 15.)

I. PRESIDENTS OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.

FRANCIS WAYLAND, D. D., L L. D.

FRANCIS WAYLAND, son of Rev. Francis Wayland, an eminent Baptist minister of New York city, was born March 11, 1796. After the removal of his father to Poughkeepsie, he was member of the academy in that place, then under the charge of Daniel H. Barnes, and entered Union College in 1811, near the close of Sophomore year. Immediately after graduation in 1813, he entered the office of Dr. Eli Burritt of Troy and after three years of medical study, was licensed to practice. But under the influence of a change in his religious feelings, he now abandoned his medical profession and entered Andover Theological Seminary in the fall of 1816, and after a year's study under the immediate tuition and influence of Prof. Moses Stuart, was induced to return to Union College as tutor. Here he remained four years, teaching in nearly all the branches of the college course and enjoying the advantages of daily intercourse with Pres. Nott. At the close of his tutorship, he was ordained pastor of the First Baptist Church in Boston, in August, 1821. It was here that Dr. Wayland preached a sermon on the "*Dignity of the Missionary Enterprise*," which exerted no small influence in arousing an interest in foreign missions and gained him a wide celebrity. In 1826 he resigned his pastoral charge to become Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Union College, but had scarcely entered upon its duties when he was elected, in February, 1827, President and Professor of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy in Brown University. Here he soon reëstablished order and discipline, and demonstrated his fitness for the post and his even more marked abilities as a teacher. He also gave himself with energy to successful efforts for increasing the educational facilities of the institution. In 1830 Dr. Wayland was elected first President of the American Institute of Instruction and was reëlected in the two following years. His peculiar views upon collegiate education were first published in a small volume entitled "*Thoughts on the Present Collegiate System of the United States*," several years before any essential change was effected in the organization of the University. In consequence of his proffered resignation of the presidency, in 1849, a new system of administration and instruction was inaugurated in accordance with his views, and such confidence was felt in the proposed plan and its author, that $125,000 were speedily raised, mostly in the city of Providence, for its consummation. He remained in office six years longer; sufficiently long to see his system carried into full and successful operation. Ill-health compelled his final resignation of the presidency in August, 1855. Dr. Wayland is the author of "*Elements of Moral Science*," published in 1835 and for many years the leading text-book upon that subject; "*Elements of Political Economy*," 1837; "*Elements of Intellectual Philosophy*," 1854; besides other works not di-

rectly educational. The first two have been abridged for the use of schools. He was deeply interested in the cause of popular education, was always ready with his valuable counsels and coöperation in the work of reorganizing the school system of Rhode Island, was also active in forming a plan for the improvement of the public schools of Providence and in stimulating the community to its adoption, and beyond the limits of the State his influence in behalf of education was often exerted and widely felt. Pres. Wayland received the degree of D. D. from Union College in 1827 and from Harvard in 1829; and the degree of L L. D. from Harvard in 1852.*

WILLIAM B. CALHOUN, L L. D

WILLIAM B. CALHOUN was born in Boston, Mass., December 24, 1795. He received his early training in the Grammar and Latin School, winning the Franklin medal in 1808, but completed his preparation for college under a private teacher, William Wells. He entered Yale College in 1810, and after graduation in 1814 read law for some time at Concord, N. H., (where his father then resided,) and afterwards for three years in the office of George Bliss at Springfield. He here opened a law office in 1822. In 1825, and until 1834, and again in 1861–2, he was sent as representative to the General Court, of which he was for six years Speaker. From 1834 to 1843 he was member of Congress—in 1847 and 1848 he was elected to the State Senate, of which he was appointed President—in 1848, '49, and '50 he was elected Secretary of State—and in 1853 was made Bank Commissioner. While a member of the Legislature his active support was given to all measures looking to the improvement of the Public Schools. He was member of the committee which framed the Revised School Act of 1827, which infused new life into the schools of the State, and as chairman of the committee to whom was referred, in January, 1827, the memorial of James G. Carter, reported in favor of an appropriation of $5,000, and $2,000 in addition annually for five years, for the establishment and support of a Teachers' Seminary. Mr. Calhoun was chairman of the Convention which organized the American Institute at Boston in 1830, was one of the Vice-Presidents until 1833, when he was elected President, which office he held until 1849. He received the degree of L L. D. from Amherst College in 1858.

JAMES G. CARTER.

JAMES GORDON CARTER, born in Leominster, Mass., Sept. 7, 1795, was raised a farmer's son, and at the age of seventeen commenced study preparatory to college, under Caleb Butler, Principal of Groton Academy. Paying his way by teaching district and singing schools, and delivering masonic lectures, he graduated at Harvard in 1820 among the foremost of his class. The preceding winter he had taught a seamen's school at Cohasset, and on leaving college opened a private school at Lancaster. His published writings in behalf of popular education commenced in the Boston papers in 1821. In 1824 he issued in pamphlet form his "*Letters to the Hon. William Prescott, L L. D., on the Free Schools of New England, with Remarks on the Principles of Instruction.*" A series of "*Essays upon Popular Education*" followed in the winter of 1824–5, also afterwards published together, which attracted much attention and in which he first made public his plan of a teachers' seminary. In 1827 he presented a memorial to

* For a fuller sketch of Dr. Wayland's Life and Educational Labors, see Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Education, Vol. XIII., p. 771.

the Legislature, asking aid in the establishment of such a seminary, with a model school attached, but failing in his application, the town of Lancaster offered its assistance in carrying out his design as a private enterprise. A few months after opening the school he was compelled to abandon the project, after having embarrassed himself by his pecuniary outlays for buildings and teachers. He continued, however, for many years to give instruction to private pupils, and published a text-book upon the geography of Middlesex county, and, in connection with W. H. Brooks, geographies of other counties, and of the State. In 1830 Mr. Carter assisted in organizing the American Institute of Instruction, of which he was long an officer and active member, and in 1840 was elected President. In 1837 and the two years following he was elected State Representative, and in 1838 State Senator, and as chairman of the Committee on Education drafted several able reports and bills to promote the cause of educational improvement. In 1837 he made a vigorous though unsuccessful effort in the House to secure the appropriation of one-half of the United States surplus revenue for the education of common school teachers. Mr. Carter was married, in May, 1827, to Miss Anna M. Packard, daughter of Rev. Asa Packard, formerly of Lancaster. He died at Chicago on the 21st of July, 1849.*

GEORGE B. EMERSON, L L. D.

GEORGE BARRELL EMERSON, son of Samuel Emerson, M. D., was born in Kennebunk, Maine, September 12, 1797. He received his fitting for college mainly from his father and entered Harvard University in 1813, graduating in 1817. The winters were spent, with one exception, in teaching district-schools in his native town, at Saco, and in Bolton, Mass. After leaving college Mr. Emerson took charge of a private academy in Lancaster, Mass., and in 1819 accepted the office of mathematical tutor at Harvard, and afterwards performed for a short time the duties of Greek tutor. In 1821 he was chosen principal of the newly established "English Classical School" of Boston, the first English High School in this country, which he conducted for two years with great success. He here applied the principles of government, by appeals to the higher motives of conduct, which he made ever after his only dependence. He here also assisted in perfecting and bringing before the public, Warren Colburn's "*First Lessons.*" In 1823 Mr. Emerson gave up the Classical School and opened a strictly private school for girls, in which work he continued until 1855. In 1826 Mr. Emerson prepared, together with F. W. P. Greenwood, the "*Classical Reader,*" which went through several editions; in 1831, wrote an appendix to an edition of Sullivan's "*Political Class-Book;*" and in 1862, in connection with C. L. Flint, published a "*Manual of Agriculture.*" Besides his direct labors as a teacher, Mr. Emerson has been an efficient laborer in many kindred departments. He was first Corresponding Secretary of the Mechanics' Institute, founded in 1827, and in 1828 delivered before it a course of lectures upon elementary mechanics. He took an active part in the formation of the American Institute of Instruction, was its first Secretary, and from 1841 to 1848 its President. In 1831 he delivered before the Institute a lecture on "*Female Education,*" and in 1842, one on "*Moral Education.*" In 1843 he wrote the Second Part of the "*School and the Schoolmaster.*" From 1847 to 1855 he was member of the State Board of Education, and suggested and drew up the act of the Legislature which origi-

* For a more extended sketch, see Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Education, Vol. V., p. 407.

tute of Instruction and was always one of its most active and efficient officers. From 1830 to 1837 he was in the Board of Counselors, from 1837 to 1855, a Vice-President, was elected President in 1855 and 1856, and afterwards again Vice-President. He was also one of the earliest originators of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, was very active in raising the funds for carrying on its operations, and held the office of President from 1845 to 1855. Of the Providence Franklin Society he was at different times Secretary and President. He has, moreover, been active in the cause of Sunday-Schools, Bible classes, and Bible Societies. He has been for eight years a member of the Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, and also trustee of the Butler Hospital for the Insane. In 1844 Mr. Kingsbury was chosen member of the Board of Trustees of Brown University, and in 1853, of the Board of Fellows, and Secretary of the corporation. The success of the University in raising the subscription of $125,000 in 1850 was especially due to his services. In 1856 he received from the University the honorary degree of L L. D. Upon resignation of the office of Commissioner of Public Instruction, he accepted the position of President of the Washington Insurance Company, which office he still holds.*

JOHN DUDLEY PHILBRICK.

JOHN DUDLEY PHILBRICK, born in Deerfield, N. H., May 27, 1818, fitted in Pembroke Academy for Dartmouth College where he graduated in 1842, has had a wide and successful experience as teacher and superintendent of schools, and in educational work generally. Beginning with a district school, which he taught for two winters before entering and three winters while in college, he became assistant in the Public High School of Roxbury, Mass., in 1842–3, and of the English High School of Boston in 1844, principal of the Mayhew Grammar School in 1845, and of the Quincy Grammar School from 1847 to 1852, and of the Connecticut Normal School from 1852 to 1854. From 1854 to 1857 he was Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut, and of the Boston Public Schools from 1857 to 1865. His active and efficient services in the educational field were recognized by his co-laborers, in his election as President of the State Teachers' Association of Connecticut in 1857, of the American Institute of Instruction in 1858, of the National Teachers' Association in 1862, and of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association in 1864. He has taken an active interest, as editor and manager, in the Massachusetts Teacher and the Connecticut Common School Journal, and at all times performed a large amount of educational service in public lectures and discussions, as well as by correspondence and personal interview. To the performance of the duties of every position he brings thoughtful preparation, respect for the views and convenience of his associates, and a determination not to leave the work where he found it, but to put every thing forward as fast as can be safely done. As Superintendent, he labors to reconcile and bring into harmonious coöperation the progressive and conservative elements of public instruction—the suggestions of the thinker and reformer, as well as the force of old habits, past success, and the considerations of economy. From the construction and furniture of the school-house, to the material aids of instruction, and the classification of the schools, to the subjects, methods, and motives of study, Mr. Philbrick's labors are incorporated into the System of Public Schools of Boston.†

* Abridged from Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Education, Vol. V., p. 9. † Do. XIV., p. 32.

DANIEL B HAGAR.

DANIEL B. HAGAR, who stands in the front rank of American teachers, was born at Newton Lower Falls, a village in the vicinity of Boston, on the 22d of April, 1820. Like most men who have lived such lives as to make their biographies desirable, he was early taught the lesson of self-reliance. When a boy of only eight years he lost his father, and he was scarcely thirteen when he left the village school and went to work in the village paper-mill to earn his living and aid his mother. For about three years he was thus employed, with brief intervals of schooling, and then, for some months, served an apprenticeship as clerk in a Boston store. But his decidedly intellectual turn, and his fondness for study, at length determined his destination to a different sphere, and at the age of seventeen he began his preparation for a college course and a professional career. He was graduated at Union College in 1843, with the highest rank in his class, having received the maximum mark in each department, during the whole course. This achievement in scholarship is very remarkable when considered in connection with the fact that he was almost always employed in teaching, from his entrance to college until his graduation, both in term-time and in vacations. While an undergraduate, he was assistant in the Academy at Kingston, Ulster county, N. Y., for five consecutive months. After graduating, he immediately commenced the study of theology under Rev. John Williams, Rector of St. George's Church, at Schenectady, N. Y., now Bishop of Connecticut. In 1844 he was induced to accept the Principalship of the Canajoharie Academy, in Montgomery county, N. Y., which he soon raised from a low condition to a high degree of prosperity. Here he labored for five years with marked success, extending his educational influence beyond the walls of his own institution, as Superintendent of the public schools of the town, as a lecturer on education, as a conductor of County Institutes, and as President of the County Teachers' Association. Meanwhile an attack of pneumonia having left his lungs in such a condition as to render much public speaking impracticable, he had relinquished his cherished purpose of engaging in the ministry, and determined to devote himself to the cause of education, his great love of teaching and his admirable fitness for the profession naturally bringing him to this decision. From this post he was called to take charge of the large Academy at Norwich, Chenango county, N. Y. This very desirable situation he resigned in the course of a year, partly on account of domestic considerations, to accept the offer of the mastership of the Eliot High School, at Jamaica Plain, a village of unrivaled beauty, wealth, and refinement, situated about five miles from Boston, and in the immediate neighborhood of his native town. Here he has labored with the most gratifying success for fifteen years, affording an admirable example of the best type of the American professional teacher. He is not merely an accomplished teacher. By his liberal studies, and his active participation in the educational movements of the day, he has become an able and sound educator. During most of the time for ten years he has been one of the editors of the *Massachusetts Teacher;* has delivered excellent lectures before various educational bodies; was one of the leading spirits in organizing the National Teachers' Association, and drew up the constitution of that body; was chiefly instrumental in securing the State appropriation for the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, and has served most acceptably as President of the Norfolk County

Teachers' Association, of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, and of the American Institute of Instruction. His high merit as a teacher and educator has naturally brought him numerous offers of desirable educational posts, which thus far he has seen fit to decline. Among them may be mentioned the Commissionership of the Public Schools of Rhode Island, the Agency of the Massachusetts Board of Education, the Principalship of the Salem Normal School, and sundry City Superintendencies. As a teacher his leading aims have been to make his scholars independent thinkers, and to control them by moral power, and while doing his whole duty in the school, he has always felt it to be incumbent upon him, as a professional teacher, to exert an outside influence for the cause of education and for the promotion of the interests of his profession.

ADMIRAL P. STONE.

ADMIRAL P. STONE was born in Piermont, New Hampshire, in August, 1820. With such elementary instruction as the district-school of his native town, and of Royalton, Vt., (where his father removed and died while the subject of this sketch was quite young,) could give,—with such physical training as an abundance of healthy labor on the farm, and such moral culture as the cheerful sharing in the responsibilities of providing for his mother's family must necessarily impart,—with such higher learning as could be gained by a few terms at the academy at Newbury, Vt., and at Fryeburg, Maine, and two or three years residence at Dartmouth College, Mr. Stone commenced his work of a professional teacher as principal of the academy at Southbridge, Mass., in 1844. And that work he has pursued assiduously and successfully, for four years in the Academy and four years more in the High School of Millbury, and for eight years in the High School of Plymouth. In November, 1864, he left the Old Colony to become Principal of the High School of Portland, Maine—declining in the meantime the appointment to the Superintendency of the Common Schools of Maine, and the *ex-officio* Principalship of the Normal School of that State. Wherever he has been located, Mr. Stone has responded to the demands which the profession and the community make of every faithful and conscientious teacher. His presence has been seen and felt in the district, town, county, state, and national conventions assembled for educational improvement. Of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association he was always a working member, and the President in 1859–60. Of the American Institute of Instruction he was President in 1862–64. In the association of the teachers of his county he was a reliable and influential lecturer and debater. In the periodical and standard literature of education he has always been a diligent reader—aiming to base his methods of organization, instruction, and discipline on those principles of mental philosophy which the best educators have demonstrated to be sound. At the same time he has kept up with the progress of the several sciences which constitute the curriculum of the highest grade of public schools. To all the constituents of a thorough and progressive teacher—ability, attainments, fidelity in the discharge of his immediate duties in the school-room and to his own pupils—Mr. Stone adds another claim to our respect and gratitude, in his continued and successful labors to promote the improvement of his profession, and advance the cause of education.

CHARLES NORTHEND, A. M.

CHARLES NORTHEND was born at Newbury, Mass., April 2, 1814. He received the usual district-school training, was fitted for college at Dummer Academy, Byfield, and spent two years at Amherst. After leaving college, he was engaged as assistant teacher in Dummer Academy for two terms, and in September, 1836, was appointed Principal of the First Grammar School in Danvers, where he remained until elected to take charge of the Epes Grammar School in Salem, in 1841. He resigned this position in 1852 to accept the position of Superintendent of Public Schools in Danvers, which he held until the division of the town in 1855. He then removed to New Britain, Conn., where he has since resided, acting as Assistant Superintendent of Common Schools, holding Teachers' Institutes, delivering educational addresses, and for most of this time having editorial charge of the Connecticut Common School Journal. No teacher has taken a more steady and laborious part in the educational associations—County, State, and National—than Mr. Northend, not only as lecturer and debater, but in the more onerous and less conspicuous work of the Executive Committee. Of the Essex County (Mass.) Teachers' Association he was President in 1846, '47, and '48, and of the American Institute of Instruction in 1864. His "*Teacher and Parent*," published in 1852, has gone through ten editions. His "*Teacher's Assistant*," first published in 1859, has reached its sixth edition. Of his "*Letters to Parents*," first published by Mr. Barnard as one of his series of "*Educational Tracts*," more than 50,000 copies have been issued. Mr. Northend is also the compiler of a popular series of oratorical and rhetorical text-books, including the "*American Speaker*"—"*National Orator*"—"*Little Orator*"—"*Little Speaker and Juvenile Reader*"—"*Entertaining Dialogues*"—and "*School Dialogues*"—also a text-book in orthography, entitled "*Exercises in Dictation and Pronunciation*"—and "*Common School Book-keeping*"—"*Young Composer*"—and in connection with David P. Page, a series of "*National Writing-Books.*" In 1848 Amherst College conferred upon Mr. Northend the honorary degree of A. M.

II. THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

AT MILLERSVILLE.

HISTORICAL SKETCH.*

On the eighth day of May, 1854, a new school bill, passed by the Legislature of Pennsylvania, was approved by the Governor, and became a law. This law established the office of County Superintendent of Common Schools—an office that has infused new life into the system of public instruction in Pennsylvania. The State Normal School at Millersville owes its existence directly to the influence of the County Superintendency in the county of Lancaster.

Lancaster is a large and populous county, and over six hundred teachers appeared before the County Superintendent for examination the first year after his election. Many of them were found to be good scholars, but nearly all were sadly deficient in professional knowledge. But few had ever read a book on the subject of teaching, and some did not even know that there were any such books. As a remedy for this state of things, the County Superintendent in his first report, dated October 21st, 1854, said:—

> The new school law was mainly designed to remove incompetent teachers, and in this respect it can be made effective. Careful examinations will determine the scholarship of applicants for schools, and professional visits to schools will ascertain their skill in teaching; and the incompetent may be rejected. But there are more than three hundred persons teaching in this county whose knowledge of the six common branches is not *thorough*, and who have read but little on the art of teaching. Imperfectly conducted schools must be the consequence. But with all these, our schools are scarcely supplied. The law furnishes the means of rejecting the incompetent, but it neglects to make provision for filling their places with others better qualified. Normal Schools are necessary to perfect our system, and it is hoped that this fact may not long escape the attention of the Legislature.

The Legislature, however, turned a deaf ear to this and similar recommendations from other school-officers, and the teachers and their friends were thrown upon their own resources.

Throughout Lancaster county great interest in the subject of professional improvement had been awakened among the teachers by means of the examinations and the visits of the Superintendent to the schools; and at a Teachers' Institute opened on the 16th of November, 1854, the following resolution was passed:—

> *Resolved*, That we recommend to our worthy County Superintendent the propriety of calling a County Teachers' Institute, to continue in session for a term of three months, at as early a period as he may think proper.

* Charter, By-Laws, and Catalogue of the State Normal School at Millersville, Penn.

Full of the notion of establishing a Normal School, the Superintendent was not backward in mentioning it wherever he thought some interest might be created in the project. The work of visiting schools brought him to Millersville. A lecture was delivered in one of the school-houses, in which the Normal project was adverted to, and the chief difficulty stated to be a want of suitable buildings. The seed thus sown fell upon good ground, and eventually produced a rich return of fruit.

Millersville is a scattered village containing about one thousand inhabitants, situated three miles from the city of Lancaster. Sometime in the early part of the year 1854, several enterprising citizens of the village desiring a more liberal education for their children than could be had in the common schools of the place, resolved to found an academy. The building designed for the purpose was in process of erection at the time of the visit above referred to; and soon after hearing the address then delivered, a meeting of the Trustees of the Academy was held and a resolution passed proposing to offer the gratuitous use of their new building to the Superintendent, if he would open his contemplated Normal School at Millersville. They further agreed to pay $1,000 towards the expenses of the school, as it was not expected to be self-supporting. The Superintendent was to render his services without compensation.

This liberal offer was accepted, and on the 5th of March, 1855, a circular was issued from which the following is an extract:—

> The success of Teachers' Institutes in this county and over the State, the general demand for better qualified teachers, and the desire on the part of teachers to improve themselves and elevate their profession, have led to the establishment of the Lancaster County Normal Institute. Its object is to furnish to the teachers of Lancaster county, and of as many other parts of the State as can be accommodated, the means of obtaining, during three months of their summer vacation, thorough professional training;—first, by giving sound instruction in the various branches; second, by imparting a knowledge of the most approved methods of teaching; third, by furnishing an opportunity for actual practice in the Model Schools connected with the Institution.

The number of students collected at a month's notice reached 135. The number of pupils in the Model Schools was about 200. The school at first labored under great difficulties. Its instructors were without experience in the management of such a school, it possessed little apparatus and few of the usual equipments of a Normal School, it could command no State aid and little official or denominational influence, it had doubting friends and open enemies; but the hand of Providence was in the work and it succeeded, thus solving practically the problem of Normal instruction in Pennsylvania, for other similar institutions soon sprung up in other counties, and out of these eventually grew the State Normal Schools.

Before the close of the school, the Trustees of the Academy, with a public spirit much to be commended, had resolved to enlarge their buildings and establish a permanent Normal School.

The Institution opened as a permanent Normal School about the first of November, 1855, under the Principalship of John F. Stoddard, who had been Professor of Mathematics under the first organization. Prof.

Stoddard occupied the position of Principal about eight months, the latter part of the time in conjunction with the County Superintendent, who a second time connected himself with the school for the same purpose and on the same terms as at first. A misunderstanding occurring between himself and the Trustees, Prof Stoddard resigned the Principalship of the school, and it was left in the middle of the term without a responsible head, only so far as the County Superintendent voluntarily discharged the duties of such a functionary. Dark days followed. In their promise the fruits of the school were in danger of being blasted. The Trustees made several efforts to obtain a Principal without success, the school was about to close, when finally the County Superintendent, J. P. Wickersham, was induced reluctantly to resign his office and accept the position which he has continued to hold to the present time. Upon the election of Prof. Wickersham to the Principalship, the Faculty was reorganized, and the school entered upon that career of prosperity and usefulness which has ever since characterized it.

From 1855 to 1859, the Institution continued wholly in private hands, under the name of the Lancaster County Normal Institute. Virtually, however, it was doing the work of a State Normal School, as its students came from all parts of the State, and its special aim was to train teachers. When finally recognized as a State school the change was really one of names, not of things.

The Normal School Law of Pennsylvania was prepared by the Hon. Thomas H. Burrowes, and receiving the signature of the Governor, became a law on the 20th of May, 1857. The Legislature passed the law without opposition, not because there were no members opposed to it, but because they considered the project it contemplated a visionary one. The result has proven that Pennsylvania Legislators were blind once for the good of the State. The leading provisions of this law were given in the December number of the Journal. Many of them had been tested as to their practicability at Millersville before they were embodied in a legal enactment.

On the 29th of June, a little more than a month after the passage of the Normal School Law, at a meeting of the Trustees and others interested in the school, it was resolved that "it is expedient so to enlarge the grounds attached to the school, and to make such additions to the buildings connected therewith, as to bring the school within the requirements of the Act of Assembly, approved the 20th day of May, 1857." The responsibility incurred by the passage of this resolution was a heavy one. Time, attention, and some $40,000 in money were required. There was delay, doubt; but at last, in the autumn of 1859, the work was accomplished, and on the 2d day of December, amid great rejoicings, the school was recognized as the first State Normal School in Pennsylvania. The Inspectors who were appointed by the State Superintendent to examine the claims of the school to recognition as a State Normal School, were Hon. James Pollock, Hon. William M. Hiester, Hon. Andrew G. Curtin, and Dr. John L. Atlee. Superintendent Dr. A. R. Blair, of

York county, Superintendent Henry Houck, of Lebanon county, and Superintendent David Evans, of Lancaster county, were present and signed the report. After the inspection a public meeting was held, at which Hon. Thomas H. Burrowes presided, and addresses were made by him, the Principal of the school, the State Superintendent, Hon. H. C. Hickok, several of the Inspectors, and others. The conclusion of Prof. Wickersham's address was in the following words:—"Pardon my enthusiasm and warmth of feeling. The work for which I have thought, and hoped, and toiled, and battled, is consummated; and whatever fortune the future may vouchsafe that work, or whatever labor God may require at my hands, I must devote the present to the rich enjoyment the past has furnished, and leave to the morrow the things of the morrow, devoutly trusting that the kind Providence whose hand has guided us thus far will still continue to care for us."

More than five years have elapsed since the second day of December became famous in the annals of the school whose history we are relating —years the most momentous that this country has ever witnessed. A giant rebellion threatened to overthrow our Constitution and our Union, and the full strength of the nation was needed to put it down; but while the whole continent was shaking with the tramp of more than a million of armed men, while many institutions of learning were being wrecked by the storm, the Normal School at Millersville has grown more prosperous every year. A larger number of names appear upon its register at the present time than ever before.

The policy of Pennsylvania in reference to education has always been not to enforce systems of schools upon the people, but to direct and regulate the systems which the people adopt for themselves. All legislation in that State respecting common schools is characterized by this policy, and the Normal School Law is no departure from it. Noticing the efforts the people were making in all parts of the State to procure better teachers, and the efforts of the teachers to improve themselves, the Legislature divided the State into Normal Districts, and provided a plan by which such efforts could be regulated and made more effective by giving them the sanction of State authority. Pecuniary assistance was nowhere promised in the law, but it was well understood that such help would be given to those who showed a disposition to help themselves. The school at Millersville has received $10,000 from the State, and will probably be granted $5,000 more by the Legislature now in session.* Besides, the State is at the expense of furnishing all certificates and diplomas.

The Normal School policy of Pennsylvania is not without its advantages. It makes the schools self-reliant and strong by throwing them upon their own resources, it enlists in their behalf the aid and sympathy of the people among whom they are located, it relieves them from all danger of political influences, and allows them the largest liberty in the choice of social arrangements and religious observances.

* This sum has been granted.

CONDITION AND WORKING OF THE INSTITUTION.

GROUNDS, BUILDINGS, AND EQUIPMENTS.—The extent of ground required to be attached to the State Normal Schools of Pennsylvania is ten acres. Except about the fourth of an acre the whole of the ten acres at Millersville is used for play and pleasure grounds. There are two large springs on the grounds, and they are crossed by a fine stream of water. Shade trees and shrubbery have been planted in great variety, and the whole appearance is quite attractive. The buildings are extensive and convenient; but, owing to additions and changes made at different times, entirely wanting in architectural symmetry and beauty. The east front is 252 feet in length, and the south front 160 feet. They accommodate 300 students with all the teachers, officers, and employees required for such an establishment. The main lecture-room or chapel is eighty feet by forty. There are nine recitation-rooms, six rooms for practice in music, two library-rooms, several offices, suits of rooms for all the teachers except the principal, nursuries, parlors, &c., &c. There are also apartments for the steward and matrons. As the students generally board in the buildings, a dining-hall, kitchens, pantries, wash-house, laundry, bakery, and the necessary dormitories have been provided.

The school is well supplied with maps and charts, and possesses considerable philosophical apparatus and a small geological cabinet. It has six pianos, two melodeons, and a harmonion. The text-book library contains twelve or fifteen hundred volumes, the reference library some two hundred more, and the society libraries about twenty-five hundred volumes. In the yard there are erected various kinds of gymnastic apparatus, and the ladies use for exercising a large hall called Olympia Hall.

Eight large hot air-furnaces heat the main buildings, and the others parts are heated by stoves. The ventilation of the buildings most recently erected is very complete. The whole cost of grounds, buildings, furniture, apparatus, &c., was fully $70,000.

ADMISSION AND NUMBER OF PUPILS.—Students are admitted when there is room for them without regard to locality. To enter the Normal School they must be sixteen years of age. Those who design becoming teachers are first accommodated, and afterwards others may be admitted if there is room for them. The latter class of students join all the regular classes except those in teaching.

The Board of School Directors in each school-district can maintain one pupil at their proper Normal School and pay all his expenses for tuition out of the public funds, but no such pupils have ever been admitted at Millersville.

The number of students in attendance is usually about 300 in the Normal School, and 80 in the Model School. In January, 1865, there were 328 names on the Normal School Register, and 85 on the Register of the Model School; and for the past year there were 529 and 101 names on the two registers respectively. The two sexes attend at the present

time in about equal proportions, but before the war two-thirds of the whole were males. Since its organization in 1855, more than 4,000 students have attended the school for a longer or a shorter time.

Courses of Study.—The true function of a Normal School is doubtless to impart instruction in the science and art of teaching, but all such schools in this country have found it necessary to adapt themselves to the circumstances of their pupils; and, among them, there are always found large numbers who are deficient in their knowledge of the branches they expect to teach, and others who possess the requisite amount of knowledge but are ignorant of the methods by which they attained it and of the forms by which to give it effective or elegant expression. The work done at Millersville may be thus classified: 1st, *Teaching the Branches;* 2d, *Reviewing Studies;* 3d, *Imparting Professional Instruction.* If a student enters the school who is deficient in his knowledge of the branches usually taught in the Common Schools of the State, he is required to study them; if one enters who may be said to understand these branches but whose knowledge is less thorough or less methodical than a teacher's ought to be, he is made to review his studies that he may supply his deficiencies; and if he enters with full preparation as to what he expects to teach, he is allowed to confine his attention to teaching alone.

As at present constituted there are three Courses of Instruction, an *Elementary Course*, a *Scientific Course*, and a *Classical Course.*

The Elementary Course embraces the following branches, viz: Orthography and Etymology, Reading and Elocution, Mental and Written Arithmetic, Physical and Political Geography, Grammar and Composition, Writing and Drawing, Vocal Music, Book-keeping, Physiology, History and Constitution of the United States, Elementary Algebra, Geometry, and the Elements of Rhetoric, Natural Philosophy, Botany, and Geology.

The Scientific Course embraces in addition to what is taught in the Elementary Course the following branches: Trigonometry, Surveying, Analytical Geometry, Higher Algebra, Differential and Integral Calculus; Zoölogy, Chemistry, Astronomy, Analytical Mechanics; General History, English Literature, Mental and Moral Philosophy.

The Classical Course adds to the branches named in the Scientific Course, the usual amount of Latin and Greek taught in our Colleges.

The design of the Elementary Course is to prepare teachers for Common Schools. The design of the Scientific Course is to prepare teachers for English High Schools. And the design of the Classical Course is to prepare teachers for High Schools in which Latin and Greek are taught.

Instruction in Teaching.—The course of professional instruction at Millersville consists of two full courses of lectures on Teaching, and practice for six months in the Model School. A student entering the School with the design of becoming a teacher, is first required to perfect himself in the various branches he intends to teach, and to learn by fol-

lowing, observing, and being trained in them the best methods by which knowledge can be obtained and imparted. He then joins the Elementary Class in teaching, receives instruction from text-book and by lectures for six months, and is examined at the end. Passing this examination, he becomes a member of the Higher Class in teaching, and continues his professional studies for six months longer. Giving satisfactory evidence of his proficiency here, he is advanced to the class in the practice of teaching. The members of this class constitute the faculty of the Model School, and under the direction of the Superintendent of that department, do its teaching. As a class they attend its opening exercises, and are responsible for its management. In the Model School each student-teacher is engaged from one hour to two hours daily, and he is allowed the advantage of practice in teaching pupils in the elements as well as those more advanced, and in the different branches of study. The programme of exercises in the Model School is so arranged that the student-teachers lose no recitations in the Normal School. The principal of the Normal School spends a sufficient time each week in the Model School to witness the work of the student-teachers, and meets the whole class twice every week in a regular recitation for the purpose of reviewing that work.

By the plan thus indicated the usual objections made to Model Schools seem to be removed. The classes in the Normal School are not broken up by the absence of some of their members, the time spent in the Model School is sufficiently long for the student-teachers to be trained to work efficiently, and the Model School pupils are carefully protected from the bad results which might arise from the unskillful efforts of incompetent teachers. The authorities of the Millersville School pronounce their Model School "a decided success," and say that a Model School "seems almost indispensable in the proper education of teachers."

A student giving satisfactory evidence in the Model School of his ability to teach is prepared for a final examination by the Board of Examiners, passing which he receives a diploma which enables him to teach in any part of the State without further examination.

It may be proper to add that about half the pupils in the Model School are from the village of Millersville and the rest come from abroad and board at the School. Their ages are generally from six to sixteen. The School occupies a room very nicely arranged and furnished. Four recitation-rooms are connected with it, as is also an office for the Superintendent. The School is well supplied with maps, charts, cards, models, reference-books, and school apparatus generally.

The Superintendent is in constant attendance and gives stability and system to the working machinery of the school, but does little teaching.

Moral and Religious Instruction.—A large number of different religious denominations are represented among the students, and it is a nice point in the administration of the school to attend properly to moral and religious instruction without arousing denominational prejudices or inter-

fering with denominational interests. For this reason no regular clergyman has ever been connected with the school as a moral or religious teacher, and the members of the Faculty are chosen without regard to their church preferences.

That this imporant part of education is not neglected, however, will appear from the following facts. Besides, the daily religious exercises at the opening of the school, the students are required to attend every Sabbath afternoon religious services in the school chapel. These consist of a sermon by some clergyman invited to preach before the school, or of a lecture delivered by a member of the Faculty. The Model School pupils and many Normal students attend a Sunday-school held every Sabbath morning. Three large Bible classes meet every week immediately after the religious services held in the chapel. A prayer-meeting is held every Sabbath evening, and generally one is held in the middle of the week. In all these religious exercises very great interest is manifested by many of the students, and to the unprejudiced mind the problem seems to be solved that a school can be religious without being denominational.

GRADUATION.—All students desiring to graduate must be examined first by the Faculty, and afterwards by a Board of Examiners consisting of not less than three Principals of Normal Schools. The examination must take place in the presence of the State Superintendent and of the County Superintendents of the Normal District in which the school is located. If a student succeeds in passing these examinations, he receives a certificate which enables him to teach two years without further examination in any part of the State. At the end of that time, upon the recommendation of the school authorities in whose employ he taught and of the proper County Superintendent, he may receive a diploma which constitutes him a professional teacher. The degrees conferred at graduation are Bachelor of Elements, Bachelor of Sciences, and Bachelor of Classics. Those conferred at the end of the two years are master in the several grades of scholarship together with the professional titles of Teacher in Elementary, Scientific, or Classical Didactics as the case may be.

The Normal School authorities are compelled by law to examine all practical teachers who have taught two terms in Common Schools, presenting themselves at the annual examinations, and to grant to them, if found worthy, diplomas similar in kind to those received by the regular graduates. This provision tends to remove all antagonism which might otherwise exist between the graduates of the Normal Schools and other teachers.

SOCIETIES.—Connected with the school there are two very flourishing Literary Societies, the "Page" and the "Normal." They hold weekly meetings, and are managed entirely by the students. The younger students support at the present time two other societies called respectively the "Junior Page" and the "Enterprising Juniors." The educational value of such societies, when well managed, is very great. They are

calculated to develop the *productive* powers of the mind, to form character, as well as to stimulate the acquirement of knowledge.

THE FACULTY.—The Faculty at the present time consists of the principal and twelve professors and teachers in the several departments. These officers are chosen by the Board of Trustees, and intrusted with the duty of imparting instruction and preserving discipline.

THE GENERAL SCHOOL-OFFICERS.—The General School-Officers consist of the Principal, a Steward, a Superintendent of Grounds and Buildings, two Matrons, and the Chairman of the following committees appointed by the Board of Trustees, viz., Committee on Grounds and Buildings, Committee on Library and School Furniture and Apparatus, Committee on Instruction and Discipline, Committee on Household, Committee on Accounts, and Committee on the Public Relations of the School.

THE RELATIONS OF THE SEXES.—The question is of general interest as to whether the two sexes should be educated together. Teaching is a profession to membership in which both sexes are admitted, and of course this presents a special reason why in a Normal School both should be educated together. At Millersville the young gentlemen and ladies attend the same recitations, belong to the same societies, and sit opposite each other at meals. Cards are given to gentleman having relatives among the ladies which admit them to the privileges of the Ladies' Parlor at certain hours on certain days; and such cards are sometimes given to others than relatives when good reason exists for doing so. All the intercourse of the two sexes is regulated, but regulated in such a way that no well disposed student feels it to be an unnecessary restraint. The privileges allowed are such that the public opinion of the school is ready to frown upon a student who violates them lest he endanger their entire withdrawal. Implicit trust is reposed in the honor of students, but severe and summary punishment is meted out to those who are found unworthy of it. Strangers visiting the school are apt to express surprise to see students enjoy so much liberty and yet preserve such good order. They forget that the most powerful agents work most quietly. That is the best government that governs itself.

Very little trouble has resulted from the co-education of the sexes in this Institution, and great good is thought to grow out of it.

CAUSES OF SUCCESS.—This paper will be concluded by an extract from the report of Hon. S. P. Bates, Deputy State Superintendent of Common Schools in Pennsylvania, who made an official visit to the school in the summer of 1862.

"It is proper, before closing this report, to consider briefly the causes of success; for the school must be considered, in its present state, in a high degree prosperous. Indeed, no Normal School with which we are acquainted, is more complete in all its parts, and is accomplishing its work more successfully than this. The Model School is undoubtedly equal, if not superior, to any yet established. This success is doubtless mainly attributable to two causes: In the first place, the plan upon

which the school is established has been carefully matured, and adopted, after an elaborate examination of the principles on which Normal education should be based. In the second place, the varied features of the plan have been put in operation with singular executive ability, and such as is rarely found exhibited in any institution of learning. In a school of this kind, it is of course a matter of great importance that the teaching be well done; but the teaching talent is of minor consequence, compared with that of originating and managing it so that every part, like those of a complicate and delicately adjusted machine, shall work harmoniously upon a settled plan."

III. SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING MANUAL LABOR

IN LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

PROGRESS OF PHYSICAL CULTURE.

Military Drill.

THE earliest, or, at least, one of the earliest educators of this country to present the claims of physical culture in any system of education, was Capt. Alden Partridge, in his "*Lecture on Education*," first delivered in 1820 and carried into execution in the "*American Literary, Scientific, and Military Academy*," opened in September of the same year at Norwich, Vt. The processes by which he proposed to secure "the due cultivation and improvement of the physical powers of the students" were "military drills and other exercises, such as fencing, marching, &c., and suitable employments in the garden, the farm, and workshop—for two hours a day." This school was removed in 1825 to Middletown, Ct., but was reëstablished at Norwich in 1834. In 1839 Capt Partridge opened a similar school at Portsmouth, Va., and another at Brandywine near Wilmington, Del., in 1853.

German System of Gymnastics.

The German system of gymnastics (running, leaping, swimming, climbing, balancing, dumb-bell exercises, &c.)—first announced and practiced by Guts-Muths in Salzmann's institution at Schnepfenthal in Saxony in 1784, and systematized and popularized by Prof. Jahn in 1810 in Berlin—was introduced in this country by Dr. Charles Beck, a pupil of Jahn, who erected the first gymnasium on this side of the Atlantic in 1825 in the Round Hill School, established by Profs. Cogswell and Bancroft at Northampton, Mass. His methods were described in a "*Treatise on Gymnastics*," published in Northampton in 1828. In May, 1826, Dr. Follen, likewise from Germany, actively sustained by Dr. Webster, opened a gymnasium at Cambridge, and also, in the autumn of the same year, at Boston. The last he shortly afterwards resigned to Dr. Francis Lieber, who, at the suggestion of Mr. John Neal, then in London and deeply interested in the newly established gymnasium of Prof. Völker, had been invited by a number of gentlemen of Boston to superintend the establishment. Gymnasiums were also opened at Providence

and elsewhere. Mr. William B. Fowle, Treasurer of the Boston Society, had introduced regular physical exercises for girls into his school as early as 1824, being moved thereto by Dr. J. G. Coffin, who had taken an active interest in this movement. Dr. Griscom, who had become acquainted with the gymnastic system from personal observation in the schools of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg in 1818 and 1819, introduced it to some extent into the High School in New York, established by him under the auspices of the New York High School Society in 1825, in imitation of the Public High School of Edinburgh. In 1826, Prof. Henry E. Dwight had made this department of education a prominent feature in the school established by himself and his brother, Sereno E. Dwight, in New Haven, known as the New Haven Gymnasium. Gymnastic exercises soon became popular and many similar institutions were founded, of which the most prominent at the time were the Mt. Pleasant Classical Institution, under Chauncey Colton and Francis Fellows, at Amherst; the Berkshire Gymnasium, by Rev. Chester Dewey, at Pittsfield; and the Woodbridge School, by Jonathan Ely and D. R. Austin, at South Hadley, Mass. Calisthenics were introduced into female schools, as the Greenfield High School, the Hartford Seminary, under Miss C. E. Beecher, and others. A "Course of Calisthenics for Young Ladies" was published by Miss Beecher in 1832.

Fellenberg and Manual Labor Schools.

Aside from the necessity of exercise for the promotion of health and the training of the physical system, the popular mind began at the same time to feel the want of a more practical education and to consider the possibility of uniting agricultural and mechanical with intellectual training. The earliest of these "Agricultural," "Farm," "Manual Labor," or "Fellenberg" schools was founded in 1797 at Lethe, in Abbeville District, South Carolina, by Dr. John De la Howe, a native of Hanover, who left by will the bulk of his estate for the endowment of "an Agricultural or Farm School, in conformity, as near as can be, to a plan proposed in the Columbian Magazine for the month of April, 1787, for educating, boarding, and clothing twelve poor boys and twelve poor girls of Abbeville District." Five hundred acres of land were appropriated for a farm, with 1,000 acres of forest, and the capital out of the interest upon which the school has been supported amounted, in 1854, to $42,000, independently of the farm, stock, and implements. The course of instruction was designed to include chemistry and the

practical arts of life. The school was not put into actual operation until some twenty years after, and there is little information at hand in regard to how far the designs of the founder have been carried out.

Fellenberg's Agricultural School at Hofwyl was established in 1807, of which a description was given by A. & J. W. Picket in the "Academician" for June, 1819. Fellenberg's system soon attracted attention in this country. The Gardiner Lyceum, in Maine, was established in 1823, for instruction in the scientific principles of mechanics and agriculture, and in 1824 a Fellenberg school was opened at Windsor, Ct., by Messrs. Stebbins and Sill. But the desire to afford the means by which poor students might defray the expenses of their education while at the same time pursuing their studies, was more influential than any other motive in the introduction of the manual labor system. The first institution founded upon this system was the Maine Wesleyan Seminary, planned in 1820 by Elihu Robinson, of Augusta, Me., and put into operation in the spring of 1825. The "Oneida Institute of Science and Industry" was founded at Whitesboro, N. Y., in 1825–6, and became one of the most successful manual labor schools in the country. In 1826 was also formed the "Andover Mechanical Association" at Andover Theological Seminary, Mass., "solely for the purpose of invigorating and preserving health, without any reference to pecuniary profit," but the success of the system of mechanical labor instituted by them, made it a model which was followed in many similar institutions. Theological seminaries, colleges, and minor schools, in almost every State in the Union, were established with manual labor as an essential principle in their constitution.*

Rev. Elias Cornelius, Secretary of the American Education Society, is entitled to the honor of having been a pioneer in this movement and a strong supporter of the system. His labors in connection with that Society necessarily brought to his notice the great waste of health and life produced in this country by the process of liberal education without systematic exercise, and in the pages of the Quarterly Register he ably discussed the benefits to result from the introduction of manual labor and physical exercise into every true system of education, and in 1829 he delivered a discourse upon the same subject before the Andover Mechanical Association. Many others had also been active promoters of the same cause. In the "American Journal of Education," edited by William Russell, several articles appeared, most of them from the pen of Dr. J. G.

* Quarterly Register, II., 57–107.

Coffin. In the "Annals of Education," in 1830, William C. Woodbridge gave a series of articles upon Fellenberg and his system, ably advocating it. In 1830, Dr. J. C. Warren delivered a lecture before the American Institute of Instruction, on "*Physical Education*," which was republished both in Boston and England, and in the same year Dr. Stephen H. Tyng gave a discourse in Philadelphia upon the "*Importance of Uniting Manual Labor and Study.*" The necessity of physical exercise to literary men was also strongly urged by Prof. Edward Hitchcock in his work entitled "*Dyspepsy Forestalled*," published in 1830. At a later date appeared an able lecture by Dr. Charles Caldwell, delivered in 1833 before a convention of teachers at Lexington, Ky., published in Boston in 1834, and republished in Edinburgh in 1836, with notes by Robert Cox, and preface by George Combe.

MANUAL LABOR SOCIETY.

In July, 1831, the "*Society for Promoting Manual Labor in Literary Institutions*" was formed in New York, for "the purpose of collecting and diffusing information calculated to promote the establishment and prosperity of Manual Labor Schools and Seminaries in the United States, and for introducing the system of manual labor into institutions now established, without diminishing the standard of literary and scientific attainment." Its officers were as follows:—Zechariah Lewis, *President.* Theodore Frelinghuysen, Rev. James Milnor, Seth P. Staples, Jeremiah Day, D. D., L. L. D., James M. Matthews, D. D., William Jay, *Vice-Presidents.* George Douglass, *Treasurer.* Rev. Joshua Leavitt, *Corresponding Secretary.* L. V. S. Wilder, Rev. G. W. Gale, W. C. Woodbridge, Rev. E. Cornelius, Lewis Tappan, S. H. Cox, D. D., Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, Cornelius Baker, S. H. Tyng, D. D., Dr. Alfred C. Post, *Managers.*

Theodore D. Weld was appointed General Agent of the Society, who had been for several years member of the Oneida Institute and was familiar with the details of the system and its practical results. In compliance with their instructions, Mr. Weld visited most of the large towns and leading literary institutions in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Alabama, prosecuting his inquires and calling public attention to the manual labor system, and in his Report at the end of the year presented a mass of facts and testimonies on the subject of manual labor, forming a pamphlet of 120 pages. This Report shows at length the evil effects of the previous system of education, and, on the other hand, pr[illegible] argument in favor of the manual labor system, that it

that it interests the mind; is favorable in its moral effect; promotes habits of industry, independence of character, and originality; renders prominent all the manlier features of character; affords facilities in acquiring a knowledge of human nature; greatly diminishes the expense of education; increases the wealth of the country; and tends to do away with absurd distinctions in society. Objections to the system are considered, and the various obstacles in the way of its success are discussed, the whole forming a valuable digest of opinions and personal experiences, with a complete and lamentable omission of all facts and statistics respecting the history and experience of the many institutions visited by Mr. Weld, with the degree of success and causes of failure of the system as carried out by them. Such an addition to the report would have added tenfold to its real practical value. After the publication of this Report, no farther effort was made by the Manual Labor Society to carry out its objects.*

The subject of Physical Education has continued to receive more and more attention, while the system of manual labor has been found to a great extent impracticable in a "literary institution," and is no longer made prominent in prospectuses and circulars. The gymnasium has gradually become an established institution—being made in some cases, as at New Haven, Amherst, and Cambridge, in a manner a special college department, with its own professor and with well equipped hall and grounds. As part of a system of public amusements, an extensive union of gymnasts has been formed among our German population, called the "Sociale Turnerbund," embracing a large number of associations in all parts of the country, and even among the purely American classes athletic games and manly sports are yearly becoming more popular.

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* Mr. Weld, in a recent letter to the Editor, remarks:—"I have modified in some respects my opinions, as expressed in the Report, and especially as to the amount of *pecuniary profit* to be expected from the manual labor system even under the most favorable conditions. The practical difficulty in successfully combining labor and study in an institution also seems to me greater and more complicated. Labor, whether agricultural or mechanical, in order to be pecuniarily profitable to any considerable extent, must be more continuous than would be consistent with the best conditions for study. So also the highest pecuniary results conflict with the best physical and mental. To secure the best result to body and mind, the student's three hours' exercise daily should be divided into half a dozen portions. This, with the requisite changes in dress, would be impracticable. So too the exercise should be more *diversified* than is practicable. From the [illegible] of labor such a selection should be made as will mete out to every part of the system [illegible] to its need. To do this effectually would require more [illegible] than could consist with much pecuniary profit. That system [illegible] part of the daily routine of every school is with me an [illegible] be made optional, but be made *imperative*. The [illegible] last thirty years is a most hopeful sign of the [illegible] of Dr. Lewis' "Light Gymnastics" is already [illegible] most auspicious."

The New Gymnastics.

The comparatively violent and athletic exercises of the early gymnastics never gained a recognized place in American female schools, though various light physical exercises were early introduced into monitorial and infant schools, and systems of "Calisthenics" were devised as a substitute in the physical training of girls. More recently, however, the freer and more graceful exercises of the "New Gymnastics," performed to the accompaniment of music and without cumbersome and expensive apparatus, have become widely popular through the enthusiastic and persistent advocacy of Dr. Dio Lewis, through whose ingenuity the system has been perfected. Since the establishment by him of the "Normal Institute of Physical Education" at Boston in 1859, over two hundred and fifty persons have already (May, 1865) been trained and sent out as teachers into all parts of the Union. Dr. Lewis published in 1860–2 the "Boston Journal of Physical Culture," and the "New Gymnastics for Men, Women, and Children," with translations of Prof. Kloss' "Dumb-bell Instructor," and Prof. Schreber's "Pangymnastikon," besides contributing freely to various school journals articles illustrating and explaining the peculiarities of his system. He may justly be considered as having inaugurated a new era in physical culture in the schools of this country. In this connection we also mention the Swedish system of Ling, introduced to some extent into this country, by which an equable development was sought of all the voluntary and even many of the involuntary muscles of the body. Ling made his system, as does Lewis, not only a branch of education for healthy persons, but also a remedy for disease, and in this form it has become known as the "motor-cure."

Military Drill and Schools.

The exigences of a great war and the universal desire to supply them, have created a demand for home military organizations and for military schools which has already effected a material and permanent increase in this form of physical training. But the thorough gymnastic training of soldiers and officers, which is made so prominent a feature in the military systems of France and Prussia, is here almost unknown. The practice of Target-shooting, introduced as an annual festival by Swiss and German Sharp-shooters in New York, and the organization of Rifle-corps in different cities, will doubtless become a permanent feature in our system.

IV. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS.

OBJECTS.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS was established in Philadelphia in 1835, with Horace Binney, *President*, S. S. Fitch, *Secretary*, and other officers, including some of the most influential friends of education in that city. The objects are thus set forth in the preamble of the Constitution, and in the Circular of the officers:—

Impressed with the conviction that, under Providence, the most effectual means of improving the moral and intellectual condition of man is the extensive diffusion of sound and practical instruction, and that the common schools of our country, in which the greater portion of the people receive their knowledge both of the rudiments and the higher branches of learning, are often inadequately supplied with teachers, and unable to obtain such as are competent to their important task, therefore, the subscribers have associated themselves for the purpose of facilitating the engagement of teachers of either sex, qualified to take charge of schools and seminaries, in their several grades, and also of children in private families.

Of the manner in which we propose to do this, we submit the following general outline:—

1. By receiving and registering all applications for situations from all classes of Teachers.

2. By receiving and registering all applications for Teachers of every grade of learning, and every variety of instruction.

3. When we find the wishes of the applicants to correspond, by making this correspondence known to the parties, and by passing the Teacher to the school or private situation as soon as practicable.

4. If any Teachers shall be unable to defray their traveling expenses to the places of destination, by loaning, as far as possible, money to said Teachers for this object; said loans to be refunded as soon as the circumstances of the Teachers will permit.

To facilitate these important objects, we are prepared to receive applications, and to answer the same. In order that the correspondence may not become of needless extent, attention to the following suggestions is particularly requested:—

Teachers applying for Schools or Private Situations will, in writing, inform the Secretary of all the branches of knowledge they suppose themselves qualified to teach; whether they desire situations in common or high schools or academies, or as private instructors, and whether as Principals or assistant Teachers; they should state if they have any preference to any particular part of the United States as a location, and also their former occupation or employment; what amount of compensation will be satisfactory; and when and for how long a period their services can be secured.

It is an indispensable requisite, that they forward testimonials of their moral character as well as of their literary qualifications; which testimonials should be from the best sources in their power, and if practicable, from individuals on whose recommendations entire reliance can be placed. When this, for any

cause, shall be impracticable, so far as it respects literary qualifications, any person, applying to the Secretary as a candidate for a Teacher's situation, and with ample credentials as to his or her moral character, may be examined by a committee appointed for this purpose; and, if qualified, may receive a certificate from said committee testifying to such qualifications. Should any applicant, unknown to the Secretary, obtain a situation, he or she will, to avoid needless correspondence, inform the Secretary without delay. It is the desire of the Association promptly to forward the interests of every deserving and qualified applicant.

Applications for Teachers will contain information respecting the sex and qualifications required; the probable amount of duty to be performed; the salary to be given; the time when the Teachers will be wanted, and the term for which he or she is desired to be engaged. It should be stated also whether the traveling expenses of the Teacher will be defrayed; and whether as a gratuity, or as payment in part in advance of his or her salary. Should such expenses by agreement be paid wholly or in part, the Secretary, if it will promote the convenience of the parties, will draw, as shall be specified, for the amount so advanced.

The American Association for the Supply of Teachers, by establishing a general agency in Philadelphia for the above objects, will be able to pass to destitute situations in various parts of the Union a large number of accredited Teachers, who, but for the instrumentality of such a society, may remain unemployed or employed in ineligible situations; and also to procure for many schools and private families suitable instructors, which otherwise might remain unsupplied. It is to be distinctly understood that, in all cases, the preference will be given to such applicants as shall produce the best certificates of moral character and literary qualifications. The examining committee will use the utmost caution in granting certificates, and manifest to all applicants the strictest impartiality.

The members of the Association solicit the free coöperation of their fellow-citizens, of the Presidents and instructors in all our literary institutions, and of all persons interested in the objects of the Society.

Any person may become a member of the Association by paying two dollars annually, and a patron, on paying ten dollars annually, and a member and patron for life, on paying at one time one hundred dollars. All moneys by subscriptions or donations will be faithfully applied to further the desirable objects above expressed.

We have no knowledge of the further doings of this Association. The work proposed to be done was highly important, and to some extent has since been attended to under the public school system; every State and county school officer doing something to bring deserving teachers, and local committees in search of such teachers, into correspondence and communication. The annual session of the National, State, and County Associations, as well as Teachers' Institutes, have facilitated the same object for both private and public schools. There is a great want which is still more systematically supplied by such an Agency as that of Schermerhorn, Bancroft & Co., 130 Grand Street, New York, and 512 Arch Street, Philadelphia, established in 1855, and styled the AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE. Their "Educational Directory" contains the names of over 80,000 teachers, superintendents, and active friends of education.

THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE DIFFUSION OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE DIFFUSION OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE was incorporated by the Legislature of the State of New York, May 16th, 1837. Its organization is chiefly due to the exertions and influence of the Rev. Gorham D. Abbott. While making the tour of the United States in the years 1831, 1832, and 1833, his attention had been directed to the power which the press exerted in this country, and during a visit to England in the latter year, he had opportunity to make similar observations there and to learn something of the operations and usefulness of the foreign societies, which by its means were engaged in promoting the intellectual and moral improvement of the people. Early in 1834, after his return from England, he began to urge upon the attention of others the importance of founding a similar society here, visiting many literary institutions and discussing the subject freely with many distinguished literary and scientific men. In the summer of 1834 he again visited England for the purpose of examining more particularly the organization, methods, and operations of the English societies, and to ascertain what advantages might be secured by way of coöperation in the use of their publications, plates, engravings, &c. Several propositions were submitted for future acceptance by different societies, publishing-houses, authors, and literary men, in London, Edinburgh, and Glasgow. Returning to this country he continued his exertions, having in the course of this time made a careful and laborious examination of the issues of the American press in all its departments during the years 1833, 1834, and 1835, exhibiting by tables the proportion of publications in each department, and also collecting a mass of statistics relative to the publications in England, France, Germany, and this country. By presenting facts relative to the extensive operations of European societies and by showing the province and the resulting benefits of some similar instrumentality in this country, he endeavored to enlist literary influence in its favor and to secure channels of operation throughout the country. In May, 1835, having associated in the enterprise a gentleman of most

estimable character, and of means and leisure to devote to it, (Mr. George Spring,) he again went to England to perfect the proposed arrangements. But the death of this gentleman, shortly afterward, necessitated his return sooner than he had intended, and compelled him to defer the execution of his design. Efforts were made, but unsuccessfully, to induce others to engage in the enterprise.* The depressing effects of the "great fire" in New York, in 1835, also discouraged and materially delayed operations until the spring of 1836, when they were pushed more vigorously than ever, under a constantly increasing conviction, on the part of Mr. Abbott and his friends, of the importance of the object.

In May, 1836, a number of meetings, convened by private invitation from all circles of the city, were held in New York, to consider the subject of a national organization. A committee was finally appointed to draft a constitution and prepare a circular address. This circular, drawn up by Mr. Abbott, and signed by about thirty eminent gentlemen, was printed, together with the form of a constitution, and extensively circulated. Replies were received from many distinguished men in all parts of the Union, approving of the plan and objects of the proposed institution, encouraging the enterprise, and proffering assistance in the furtherance of its objects. Public meetings were also held in its favor at Saratoga, Hartford, and Andover, Mass., and it received the approval of the State Convention of Teachers, held at Albany. On the 17th of October a public meeting was finally held in New York, for the purpose of hearing the report of the committee and organizing the Society. The Hon. Albert Gallatin was called to the chair, and Charles Butler, Esq., appointed secretary. Prof. John Proudfit stated the origin and objects of the meeting, and a report was received from Mr. Abbott, as agent of the committee. The minutes of the public meetings that had been held were read, and the numerous communications favorable to the design, which had been received by the committee, were submitted. The constitution, after discussion, was adopted and the AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE DIFFUSION OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE was organized in accordance therewith by the election of the following officers:—

President.—Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer.
Vice-Presidents.—Thirty-five in number, from twenty-six different States.
Secretary.—Gorham D. Abbott, N. Y.
Treasurer.—Anthony P. Halsey, N. Y.
Board of Directors.—Forty in number, principally from New York.

* The Rev. Dr. Alonzo Potter of Union College, in conjunction with Mr. Delavan, so long and zealously engaged in the temperance cause, had conceived a somewhat similar design of a "Family Library," and $50,000 had been placed in his hands to be applied to the object. Various circumstances, however, concurred to prevent the execution of the project.

Executive Committee.—James Brown, Esq., N. Y.; Thomas Cock, M. D., N. Y.; John Torrey, M. D., N. Y.; Alonzo Potter, D. D., Schenectady; Wilbur Fiske, D. D., Conn.; Jacob Abbott, Boston; B. B. Edwards, Boston; Leonard Bacon, Conn.; Calvin E. Stowe, Ohio; Charles Butler, N. Y.; J. T. Gilchrist, N. Y.; Lewis C. Beck, N. Y.; Marinus Willett, M. D., N. Y.; Wm. Cooper, N. Y.; Timothy R. Green, N. Y.; Wm. Betts, N. Y.; Henry E. Davis, N. Y.

In May, 1837, application was made to the New York Legislature for a charter. A bill was introduced which passed the Senate, but was lost in the House. By the exertions of the secretary, however, a reconsideration was obtained, and, on the 16th, the bill was passed. In the same month a "prospectus" was issued by the Executive Committee, and widely circulated, setting forth the design and importance of the institution, and giving sketches, at some length, of various European literary and scientific societies. In October there followed a "Prospectus of a Library for Schools and Families," written by Mr. Abbott, and signed by Leonard Bacon, Thomas Cock, and Timothy R. Green, being probably the earliest published plan of a systematic, comprehensive library, designed by subsequent annual additions to become a worthy library for any school or district, in all departments of useful knowledge. Suggestions were requested in respect to the general interests of the plan, or proposals for furnishing particular books, or aid in raising the necessary funds. It was estimated that $15,000 would be needed to carry the plan into execution. Of this prospectus (which was accompanied by a cut, designed by Mr. Abbott, representing the library complete, in its case) some 60,000 copies were circulated.

The principal object in view at this time was the preparation and publication of this library, and for this purpose the Executive Committee resolved themselves into standing committees, of three each, upon "Negotiation," "Material," "General Literature," "Science," &c., in order by division of labor and responsibility to secure the best attention to every department of the library. A respectful remonstrance was made to the American Sunday-School Union against their proposed plan of supplying a Common School Library from their publications. Correspondence was held with State superintendents and others in regard to the selection of the library, books were examined and decided upon, and every means were used to make the library what it ought to be. Negotiations were finally entered upon with the Messrs. Harper & Brothers of New York, for its publication. The original plan was to make the selection of books from the publications of the different publishing houses of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, in order to interest the trade generally. The passage of an act by the New York Legislature on the 17th of April, 1838, appropriating a portion of the income of

the Surplus Deposit Fund to the purchase of Common School Libraries, and making it obligatory upon every district to procure a library, hastened the movements of the committee. This action on the part of the State had been anticipated, but had not been expected so soon. The members of the Society had, many of them, been zealous in promoting legislative action in this direction, but the result was reached some months in advance of their expectations. Before another year they had hoped to have had a suitable library prepared and to have obtained such a law.

To meet this immediate demand it now became necessary to provide a first series of the Library sooner than one could be prepared expressly for the purpose, and therefore the committee determined to make the best selection possible under the circumstances. A contract was accordingly entered into with the Messrs. Harper & Brothers for the uniform issue of fifty volumes, mostly selected from their own publications, the price of which complete should be twenty dollars. Several sets of the Library were prepared, and in May, 1838, a public meeting was held in New York for its exhibition and for a general exposition of the designs of the Society. Gov. Marcy presided, and the Hon. W. H. Seward and others addressed the meeting. The Executive Committee had already engaged agents (Rev. Dr. Holmes for New England, Rev. Mr. Page for Western New York, and Mr. Haskell for Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois) to secure the introduction of the Library into the schools of those sections, while the secretary, and others, visited Boston, Albany, Washington, and other cities, for the same purpose. In September, 1838, the contract for the publication of the first set of the Library was considered completed, and in October, after extended consultation, the final changes were made in the volumes comprising it. Measures were commenced for addressing every executive officer of the General and State governments, and every legislator, upon the subject of school libraries, and in February, 1839, a committee was appointed to memorialize Congress, and to call a public meeting in the city of Washington. This committee (composed of Messrs. C. S. Stewart, J. Proudfit, J. T. Gilchrist, and G. D. Abbott) drew up and presented to Congress a memorial, which was referred to the Committee on the Library and ordered printed. The adjournment of Congress, soon after, prevented farther action.

The general objects of the Society were, in this document, represented to be, to extend the means and improve the character of public instruction, to elevate the standard of the national literature, and to promote the diffusion of knowledge and correct principles

among all classes—these objects to be effected by uniting the influence and efforts of literary, benevolent, and philanthropic men in employing the appropriate means. The immediate designs of the Society were, 1. The publication and general introduction of a national *school library;* 2. The publication of a *popular journal* of useful knowledge and of public instruction; and 3. The preparation of a set of *text-books* for schools, combining the excellencies of all books used in this or other countries. "The Executive Committee intended to have asked the contributions of their fellow-citizens in aid of these great objects, in the earlier stages of their labors; but the commercial embarrassments of the country have constrained them to go on silently and almost unaided until the present time. No general effort has hitherto been made to obtain the necessary funds; yet in all other respects the Society has been making a steady and rapid progress, and a wide field of influence and usefulness is now opening before it. The attention of many distinguished men in all parts of the country has been directed to its objects, and a very general approbation of the plan throughout the country has been received." "To accomplish the objects of this Society, and to place it at once upon the ground which a national institution of this character ought to occupy, it is necessary to engage the services of authors, to import the publications of similar societies in Europe, and such other books as may assist the labors of the committee, to employ agents, and to stereotype and manufacture anew a second series of fifty volumes, in a style and manner in all respects worthy of the object."

After an informal meeting of the friends of the Society on the 16th of February, a call (signed by S. H. Smith, Walter Jones, Francis S. Key, M. St. Clair Clarke, and Thomas Sewall) was made for a public meeting to be held at Washington on the 20th. A meeting was accordingly organized at that time by appointing the Hon. Joseph Story chairman, and the Hon. Robert Strange, of South Carolina, secretary, and was addressed by Messrs. Proudfit and Abbott, on the part of the Society, followed by Messrs. Justice Story, Judge Wayne, Hon. B. F. Butler, Hon. W. B. Calhoun, George Combe, of Edinburgh, and Mr. F. S. Key. Resolutions were passed approving the objects of the Society and cordially commending it to the patronage of legislatures, schools, and institutions of learning.

In April, 1839, an act was passed by the Legislature of New York in reference to its appropriations for schools, which authorized the Secretary of State, at the request of the trustees of the

districts, to make a selection of books for the use of the districts—thus in effect putting the choice and control of the library wholly into his hands. But here a difficulty arose in the way of the Society, inasmuch as the Superintendent, while he adopted, with very few changes, the library upon which the Society had bestowed so great care and labor, nevertheless refused to in any way acknowledge or accept of their instrumentality in its preparation and distribution. The Society had already raised and expended over $3,000, and had become obligated for nearly $7,000 more. They had looked forward to the supply of the New York schools especially for the means of reimbursement of past expenses and to enable them to continue their labors. Finding themselves now cut off from the resources upon which they had relied and without prospective means for the liquidation of the debts which they had incurred, they were obliged in a great measure to suspend their operations, especially as regarded the school library. They were, however, enabled to claim, at least, the credit of having directed the attention of the public mind throughout the country to this great work, and of having given origin to the school library system of several States; under their auspices the first school library was issued, and their early plan and catalogue of the school library has been made the basis of all subsequent operations by the different Boards of Education in the different States.

In reference to the second great object of the Society, the publication of a popular journal had early received their attention. In December, 1836, it had been determined by the Executive Committee to commence the issue of a "Saturday Magazine," and in accordance with arrangements previously made with the London Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, the plates of the London Magazine for one year were sent over to be used by the American Society. The commercial embarrassments of the next year, however, prevented the carrying out of the design.

The third main object still remained—the preparation of a series of text-books for schools—and to effect this object the exertions of the Society were directed after January, 1842. In May of that year, the Executive Committee (then including Theodore Frelinghuysen, John A. Dix, Thomas Cock, Charles Butler, M. S. Hutton, M. S. Bidwell, J. B. Beck, W. Adams, S. F. B. Morse, G. Folsom, G. D. Abbott, E. Robinson, J. Torrey, J. A. Vaughan, J. L. Mason, G. Peck, T. L. Vermilyea, A. C. Post, J. O. Choules, G. B. Cheever, and W. Cutter) appointed a committee to make a report upon the whole subject of *spelling-books*, with a review of the books then in use,

and a recommendation of those most deserving of patronage. A partial report was made in December, 1842, which was published—followed, in December, 1846, by the publication of "*The New English Spelling-Book; designed to teach Orthography and Orthoëpy; with a critical analysis of the Language and a classification of its elements; on a new Plan; with appropriate Lessons for the Instruction and Improvement of the Young.*" In this work, which was prepared by Mr. Abbott, the words are classed according to their derivation—Anglo-Saxon, Gothic, Latin, Greek, French, &c.—and those of each element are again subdivided according to the parts of speech. It never came into extensive use. The advertisement attached to the Spelling-Book announces a "Defining Book" as the next volume of the series, to be followed by a "School Dictionary," an "Introductory Primer," and a series of English Readers then in course of preparation. These works were never published. Porter's "Rhetorical Reader," as well as Colburn's "First Lessons in Arithmetic," had been approved of and adopted by the Society several years before, by agreement with the publishers.

In September, 1843, the Executive Committee made a report upon the subject of English Grammar, in which they state that arrangements had been made for the preparation, by W. H. Wells, of Andover, Mass., of a new grammar upon the basis of Hiley's Grammar. Well's "*Grammar of the English Language for the use of Schools*" was published in 1846, independent of this Society, and was very favorably received and widely used. Nothing farther of the proceedings of the Society appears upon record.

Its publications, other than the Spelling-Book and the reports upon Spelling-Books and Grammar, are mostly found attached to the "*Memorial to Congress*," published as Senate Document, No. 235, Feb. 19, 1839, 25th Congress, 3d session.

THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL SOCIETY.

THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL SOCIETY owed its origin mainly to the exertions of its secretary, J. Orville Taylor, whose labors in behalf of common schools, as an indefatigable and popular lecturer in several States, and as the editor and publisher of the Common School Assistant of New York from January, 1836, to January 1840, should be held in grateful remembrance and deserve a fuller notice than we can give here. It was established in January, (?) 1838, with Albert Gallatin as President, Theodore Frelinghuysen, Vice-President, James Lenox, S. B. Ruggles, and others, Executive Committee, and J. Orville Taylor, Secretary. The Constitution sets forth the objects of the Society to be "the extension and improvement of education in Primary Schools in the United States." The prospectus issued in April, 1838, states its purpose "to publish a cheap monthly newspaper which would contain the school laws of the different States, reports of successful schools and systems of instruction in this and foreign countries, drawings of model school-houses, communications from literary men on educational subjects, and earnest popular appeals for the advancement of common school education—to offer premiums for good school-books, to be printed and sold by its agents—to communicate with auxiliary societies for the collection of information, and arouse attention by public lectures —and to open an office in the city of New York, where books and information in regard to schools and the publications of the Society could be obtained."

This seems to be but the ground which the secretary had himself attempted to occupy, and the prestige of the Society's name was merely added to operations which he had himself previously commenced, though a list of subscriptions toward the objects of the Society is announced in May, 1838, amounting to over $2,700, in sums ranging from $250 to $10, and including such well-known names as P. G. Stuyvesant, James Wadsworth, M. H. Grinnell, Lindley Murray, &c.

As editor of the Common School Assistant, Mr. Taylor had for the two years previous been conducting such a journal as above de-

scribed, had established a "Common School Depository," and published a series of "Useful School-Books," which were freely recommended in the journal to the attention of schools; he had, in May, 1836, selected a series of books for a district library, and in July, 1836, a set of school apparatus, which he was prepared to furnish, and in Dec., 1837, opened an "American Common School Union" in New York, where might "be seen and purchased whatever relates to the improvement of schools and the diffusion of useful knowledge." In 1838 were issued, as from the American Common School Society, the design for a model school-house, a "Common School Almanac," and a circular of interrogatories to the friends of common schools.

A meeting was held in August, 1838, at Saratoga, Chancellor Walworth in the chair, which was addressed by Mr. Taylor and Mr. J. S. Buckingham. A meeting was also held at Washington, professedly called by this Society, on 13th December. Hon. W. C. Johnson was chairman and Mr. Stansbury, secretary. Addresses were made by Mr. Taylor, James Barbour, Esq., of Virginia, Col. W. L. Stone and Francis L. Key.

In February, 1839, the Society offered a premium of $100 for the best tract upon "The qualifications of a Teacher in Primary Schools, and the most efficient mode of discharging its duties." But upon the discontinuance of the Common School Assistant in January, 1840, all farther traces of the action of the Society are lost.

J. ORVILLE TAYLOR.

J. ORVILLE TAYLOR, one of the pioneers in the work of improving common schools, was born in Charlton, Saratoga county, N. Y., on the 14th of May, 1807. To the scanty instruction of the district school in his native town was added the more thorough and liberal preparation for college in the academy at Cherry Valley. After a four years' course at Union College, where he graduated in 1828, (?) he studied law at New Haven, and while there wrote his "District School" as an essay for the prize offered by Mr. James Wadsworth. The essay did not come up to the conditions prescribed by the judges, but was published at Mr. Wadsworth's expense. Mr. Taylor received $1,000 for the copyright and over 5,000 copies were disposed of by the Harpers, Brothers.

In 1831–2 Mr. Taylor read for a term at Cambridge and there became acquainted with W. A. Alcott, W. C. Woodbridge and Josiah Holbrook, and yet farther interested in the cause of education. In January, 1836, he issued the first number of the Common School Assistant, under the pledge of pecuniary help from J. Wadsworth, W. L. Marcy, W. A. Duer, B. T. Onderdonk, S. Van Rensellaer, J. Buel, and others. This paper gained a circulation of 30,000 copies during the first year, and was continued through four volumes.

In 1837 he was appointed Professor of Public Instruction in the New York University, and in the following summer prepared a class of fifty scholars for the profession of teaching. Mr. Taylor lectured upon common schools throughout Michigan, and in many places in New York, Vermont, and Western Massachusetts. Pennsylvania, Virginia, and South Carolina were also visited by him

Mr. Wadsworth's Efforts in Behalf of Common Schools.

A large measure of gratitude is due to James Wadsworth for his early, enlightened, and efficient efforts to promote the establishment and improvement of common schools in the State of New York.

In a letter addressed to John Lerickloin, Esq., dated January 30, 1796, giving the outline of a plan for the settlement of a tract of land, thirty miles square, he observes:—

I would propose that a one hundred and twenty acre lot be granted to the inhabitants (of each township,) for the support of the gospel, and a one hundred and twenty-five acre lot for the support of a school. Let the grant be conditional upon the inhabitants improving five acres a year, on each lot; the second and third years, ten acres a year thereafter, till one hundred acres shall be improved on each lot. The income of both to be applied to the support of a school, until a minister shall be settled. It is true the amount of two lots in each township will be considerable, but is observable that the stability of government, and of course the security of property in all republics, depend, in a great measure, upon the information of the common people.

Again, in a letter to Robert Troup, Esq.:—

It gives me great satisfaction to hear that you have determined to appropriate a piece of land for a meeting-house, and for a school-house, and likewise a glebe and parsonage for a minister. My mind is strongly impressed with the salutary consequences which will follow from these donations. It is a substantial benefit conferred upon the town (of Pulteney,) and in its consequences upon your country. I am not superstitious, but I believe in Christianity. I am no partisan, but I believe in the piety of patriotism, and, amidst the troubles of this wayward world, it appears to me that the mental consolation that attends advanced life is the recollection of substantial benefits conferred on our country, of having contributed our full mite to the improvement and happiness of our fellow-men; especially to that portion of them whose destinies are influenced, more or less, by our decisions, and by the situation in which, by Providence, we are placed.

I shall never forget the exalted part which Judge Benson took, in procuring from the Holland company, the grant of a school lot, and glebe lot, in each township of six miles square. * * It is true a single lot will not support a clergyman, or a single lot a school; but when cultivated they will do considerable toward these objects, and, what is of much consequence, they prove a constant incentive and support to a virtuous few in every town, till there is a majority in favor of supporting a clergyman and a constant school. Insure the support of schools, and children will be instructed. * * The State of Connecticut is under incalculable advantages to a law, long since passed in that state, requiring a yearly tax from each town; but, providing that a certificate from the school committee, stating that the amount of this tax has been applied to the payment of schoolmasters, under certain restrictions, shall be received in payment of the tax at the state treasury. This tax falls far short of supporting the schools, but it operates in the same manner as a constant fund, arising from a school lot. In its effects, it insures constant schools.

In a letter, dated December 28, 1811, addressed to John Murray, Jr., Esq., one of the commissioners appointed by Gov. Tompkins, in pursuance of a vote of the legislature, "to report a system for the organization and establishment of common schools," Mr. Wadsworth anticipates, substantially, the plan which was, in the following year, recommended by the commissioners, and adopted by the legislature. At the close of the letter, he adds:—"Make it the duty of the com-

missioners to send to the school inspector of each town a "*Lancaster Manual*,"* containing observations on teaching, and school government, and thus diffuse through the state the latest and most practical information as to improved methods."

In the same letter, he suggests that "teachers should be trained at Albany and New York, and sent through the state," or that "a suitable teacher should visit the schools of each county," and a sort of model or central school should be established in each county town. He adds a wish, "that an original genius would publish a weekly paper," devoted to the advancement of the useful arts and of schools.

In a letter addressed to Col. Samuel Young, dated January 16, 1826, Mr. Wadsworth suggests the establishment of county academies, for the education of schoolmasters.

It is an undoubted fact that there is an utter waste of half the expense of, and half the time passed in, our common schools. The evil, you will find, is extremely difficult to remedy; but it can and must be conquered. The evil is the ignorance and incompetence, and the object to be attained, the instruction of six thousand schoolmasters. This attained, the instruction of four hundred thousand youth will immediately follow. * * I take the liberty to make one or two suggestions which, or something better, I hope may lead to the eventual accomplishment of the desired object. Any single academy would be quite inadequate. The scheme to be effectual must embrace the instruction of an average of upward of one hundred schoolmasters in each of the fifty-seven counties.

The buildings once erected, the next step is, instructors for schoolmasters in each county. Here are difficulties. Suppose the county sustain a part, and individual subscription a part, of the expense. An important provision would be, that after say two years, no person, who had not passed say six months in the scientific school, should be allowed to teach a district school which received aid from the school fund.

The scientific instruction of the people does not seem to have been considered within the province of our colleges and our clergy. Yet, the man who is scientifically instructed is a double man. Whether he acts in Gen. Scott's regiment on the lines, or in a workshop, or on a farm, or in the cabinet at Washington. It is most desirable that a beginning should be made at the present session, and public sentiment will push it forward into practical usefulness.

In a letter to I. V. N. Yates, superintendent of common schools, dated January 25, 1826, Mr. Wadsworth urges the superintendent to recommend to the legislature to aid in the establishment of a scientific school in each county town, and "to offer a premium to every fit person, who shall attend that school one year, and receive a certificate of competency to teach, and an additional sum for his next year's services in keeping school, above what the district pays him."

Suppose that the legislature direct that $20,000 or $30,000 of the income be diverted from its present application, for a year or two, and be applied according

* Mr. Wadsworth shared with DeWitt Clinton, and other enlightened educators of that day, in sanguine anticipations of great and good results from the introduction of the monitorial system of Lancaster, both on account of its economy and its efficiency. In the above letter, he mentions that he had introduced it into a school in Geneseo, and adds: "Arkwright's discovery, and the subsequent improvement, are not more important to the manufacture of cotton, than Lancaster's system to an infinitely more important object, the education of our youth."

to the above hints, or on some better plan, for instructing schoolmasters. Make a beginning in each county town, where the good effects will be seen throughout the county, and rely upon it, the good sense of the people will perfect a practicable scheme for instructing the youth of this state in the arts and sciences. The teachers of schools are now going on in the beaten path, and are no more in fault than their mothers were for spinning cotton on domestic wheels.

To instruct a whole people in the first principles of the arts and sciences was never done or hardly dreampt of. Still, with an income of $30,000 a year, and the monitorial plan of education, is it not perfectly practicable? With such an income, which is yearly increasing, ought not an experiment to be made?

Say that it would result in a visionary scheme, and that twenty or thirty thousand dollars is lost, it is only directing a loss from one channel into another. Double that sum is now yearly lost.

In a letter to Governor DeWitt Clinton, dated May 11, 1826, after requesting the Governor to examine a new "copy book," and encourage the publishers, Mr. Wadsworth remarks:—

There is quite an awakening in our western villages on the subject of education, and it is rapidly spreading from town to town. I am fully convinced the public mind will settle down in the establishment of a monitorial high school in every county in the state, in imitation of Professor Griscom's, to be furnished, in time, with a little philosophical apparatus. Nothing short of this is competent to the instruction of between seven and eight thousand schoolmasters; and it seems idle to talk of spreading knowledge by means of instructors who have not acquired knowledge. It will be no injury to a mason to become acquainted with the properties of air, nor to a millwright with the properties of fluids, and, I add, to the mighty mass of mind throughout the state, to reason correctly.

In a subsequent letter to Governor Clinton, dated December, 1826, he returns to the same subject:—

What is to be done to improve our common schools, is a subject worthy of all consideration, and is full of difficulties. I believe it is now generally conceded, that our common schools are comparatively good for nothing; that it may be almost said, without exaggeration, that they teach but little more than mothers could and would teach without them, notwithstanding the great amount appropriated for their support. Knowledge on school matters they do not possess, and knowledge they do not communicate. Yet, considering man in a statistical point of view, the powers of an educated are double those of an uneducated artisan. This certainly is unimportant, compared with the renovating influence of education. The amount appropriated yearly to the support of common schools, is competent to give a scientific education to the youth of this state, if properly applied. I am greatly desirous that a beginning should be made. We have upward of seven thousand school districts; to educate a corps of seven thousand schoolmasters is certainly a formidable undertaking, and the most zealous can only expect a gradual approximation to the desired object.

I am convinced that nothing short of the monitorial high school, in every county in the state, can effect the object in view. Suitable edifices for monitorial schools will cost from three to four thousand dollars. These might be built, partly by a county tax and partly by individual subscription; or, it appears to me perfectly just and reasonable to withdraw, for a season, a part of the school fund income, which is now doing very little good, and apply it to objects which will ultimately carry science into the common schools.

The state of our colleges ought, in some shape, to be brought before the public. These institutions, if they have not retrograded, have been stationary for the last twenty years. Instead of taking the lead, they have to be dragged along by public sentiment. What new idea, what improved modification of old ideas, what new suggestion in a department peculiarly their own—that of education—what advance in the arts and sciences (with one or two honorable exceptions,) has been presented to society from our colleges, the last twenty years. The state has invested in college stock upward of a million dollars. This capital, with from

twenty to thirty dollars yearly tuition from each scholar, supports about thirty instructors, including presidents, professors, and tutors, and badly educates about three hundred and fifty students. Professor Griscom pays six-monthly interest on a capital of about twenty-five thousand dollars, and with a yearly tuition of from twenty to twenty-five dollars; educates six hundred youth, and in the branches taught educates them well. There seems to be something in incorporated colleges fatal to improvement. Whether it is, that the officers are hirelings for life, and bereft of the renovating influences of periodical elections; whether it is, that they are ex-officio deprived of the animating principles which lead to excellence in other situations in life, I do not attempt to decide; of the fact there can be no doubt. Our colleges are twenty years back of the lights of the age. And yet, it is the duty of the college officers to instruct our youth in ancient and modern science, and in the most recent improvements of this improving age. How far this duty is felt, or regarded, or executed, after inquiring, there can be but one opinion.

In a letter to P. C. Fuller, Esq., member of the house of the legislature, dated January, 1829, he urges the establishment, by legislative grant, of county high schools, with special reference to the education of schoolmasters.

To improve the common schools in this state, the employment of more able instructors is indispensable. It is idle to talk of employing graduates in our common schools. The article wanted does not exist. Our common schools teach little more than decent mothers teach—that is, to read and write very imperfectly. Our eight thousand schoolmasters do not possess knowledge and can not communicate knowledge. Before we have the commodity we want, we must manufacture it. County monitorial schools are intended, as tariffs on manufactures, to raise up a class of cheap (an indispensable condition,) and at the same time tolerably scientific and competent schoolmasters for each county of the state, but more particularly for the inland counties, into which a ray of science at present does not enter. Our eight thousand common schools form a noble theme for declamation; but it is a fact, and a fact well known to the members of the legislature, that our county schools are comparatively good for nothing; and it is equally a fact, that they will continue, for ages, inefficient and almost useless, without decided and intelligent legislation. We, no doubt, expend yearly, as the Governor mentions, $232,000 in support of common schools; and it is equally true, that one-half this expenditure is literally a waste of money. The expenditure only serves to maintain a set of lounging, ignorant men, utterly incompetent to give instruction. Who is to blame? Not the trustees of the school districts. With the means they have, they employ the best men they can find. The article wanted has not been found; not for want of the expenditure of money, but because public attention has not been directed to this specific object. As a humble individual, the most important question I ever asked is, what are the elements of civilization? In pursuing this idea, can you make a forward movement in civilizing, and refining, and giving elevated and deep religious impressions to the great mass of community, without commencing with your schoolmasters? In my view of the subject, it is so important that something be done—that a beginning be made—that I would not be overscrupulous as to the provisions of the first law. These little manufactories will soon turn out articles so superior to those now in use, the importance and general application of these superior articles will instantly be felt in the mechanism of the body politic, that the system must and will progress. The commodity of all others the most needed in the State of New York, is educated men, men possessing knowledge. I take it, that it will not be disputed, that a little knowledge is quite requisite to make wise and just laws, and to explain and execute them in the infinite diversity of objects to which they apply and are intended to regulate. The want of educated men is not alone felt in our legislatures—it is felt in our county officers—it is constantly felt in every department of business.

I beg Mr. Hayden and yourself to fix your minds on this particular point. Can nothing further be done, or must we remain stationary? If you had the charge

of the schools in any one town or throughout the state, and of the money raised and actually expended, could you do nothing further? I anticipate your answer, that, with half the money expended, you could give a scientific education to the youth of this state. If this subject was fairly brought before the legislature, and fully explained, it would certainly receive their earnest and untiring attention. Imagine, if you can, any thing more beneficial in its results, more enduring as a source of constant satisfaction to yourselves, than to have commenced this great work, this forward movement in the amelioration of the human family.

In 1832, by Mr. Wadsworth's suggestion and efforts, aided by Mr. Fuller, of Livingston County, and the recommendation and co-operation of Mr. Flagg, the superintendent of common schools, the republication and distribution of Hall's "*Lectures on School-Keeping*" among the several school districts of New York was secured. In reference to this vote, he writes, May 4th, 1832, to Carter & Hendee, of Boston, the publishers of the work, as follows:—

I can not tell how much I am gratified in learning from Mr. Fuller, that a law has passed the legislature, authorizing Mr. Flagg, secretary of state, to place in the hands of the trustees of each school district in the state (about nine thousand,) a copy of Hall's "*Lectures on School-Keeping.*" Great credit is due to Mr. Fuller and Mr. Flagg, for their exertions in procuring this enactment.

This law is the commencement of a great work in this state—the improvement of our common schools. Gov. Clinton, some years before his death, called up this subject before the legislature, and was unwearied in his endeavors to make a beginning. The extreme difficulty of the undertaking, which is nothing less than instructing and preparing nine thousand men for the responsible station of schoolmaster, has hitherto dismayed and disheartened the warmest friends to the general diffusion of education. I consider these difficulties as half overcome, in the fact, that we have made a beginning, which will convince the wavering that something can be done, and which I have no doubt will call into the field new friends and increased efforts, and a vast improvement in our common schools will follow.

I have not the pleasure of being acquainted with Mr. Hall. At the time I purchased of you a number of copies of his lectures, last winter, I read them with great pleasure, and was at once convinced that they would lead to great meliorations in our common schools. I beg Mr. Hall to pardon me for suggesting, that I hope he will not spare any pains in his revised edition of his lectures. * * * I will venture, also, to express a hope, that the lectures will not contain a remark which can be tortured into sectarianism; still, as they are to be addressed to youth, they ought to abound with those moral and religious considerations which are common to all denominations.

In the same letter, Mr. Wadsworth recommends to these publishers to bring out a volume of "*Common School Lectures,*" to be read by the teacher at the close of the morning and afternoon exercises of every day, on chemistry, political economy, principles of legislation, and especially "the principles on which good health depends and diseases are prevented and removed."

The operation of learning to write and read does not confer knowledge. The question before us is, how can useful and scientific knowledge be communicated to the youth in our common schools? Without elementary knowledge, man is but *half* a man; with it, man is a *double* man.

The course which I have recommended will do something toward the attainment of this great object, and that something will, no doubt, lead to further improvements.

In a letter to Mr. Flagg, dated June 14th, 1832, he refers to the subject and urges still other action:—

I take the liberty of inclosing, for your perusal, a copy of a letter I have lately written to Messrs. Carter & Hendee, booksellers in Boston.

I can not express to you how much I rejoice in the success of your own and Mr. Fuller's exertions, in causing the distribution of a copy of Hall's "*Lectures*" to every school district in this state. Though humble in a single case, in the aggregate it is a most noble beginning. You will recollect that I am an old laborer in this field, and, though frequently in utter despair, your success on this occasion has given me renewed spirits and fresh hopes. I have now no doubt that a conviction of the practicability, and most urgent necessity of improving our common schools, will become general in a few years, and from that period their onward course will commence. Gov. Clinton's mind was deeply impressed with this conviction. His remarks, in his last messages to the legislature, on improving our common schools, gave an impulse to, and inspired confidence in, the undertaking; but the noble work ceased with his death. And I think it not an inflated remark, to add that, if his recommendations in relation to our common schools had been carried into faithful execution, the beneficial effects to the rising generation, would not have been less than those which have resulted from his great work, the utility of which is now confessed by all. I beg you to pardon the liberty I take, in mentioning, that if your convenience will permit you to make a tour to the eastward, and pass a few days at Boston and in its vicinity, during the summer, you will perceive that our neighbors in Massachusetts are altogether ahead of us in their schools and courses of instruction. Their lyceum system of village and town lectures is literally working wonders in that state. This system will gradually make its way into this state—but a little aid from a few individuals would greatly accelerate its progress. * * * How much have the common schools and schoolmasters, in the out-of-the-way counties in this state, advanced for the last twenty years? What operating cause can you point out, that will accelerate their advance for the next half century? * * * Our common schools have been and will remain stationary, without some special interference on the part of the more enlightened. Why has the population of Spain remained as it is for the last two hundred years? Why is the depressed state of our common schools passed over from year to year, and utterly neglected? On the state of our common schools depends the intellectual and moral state of the people at large of the succeeding generation. There are answers to these questions, and somebody ought to point them out. Is it because the members of our legislature and others, without the advantage of scientific education, are fascinated with the game and race of politics—the bull-fights of our country—and don't know how, or are unexcited and unwilling to give their attention to the slow and tedious process of raising the intellectual and moral character of the inhabitants of this state?

If it is a meritorious service to make two blades of grass grow, where only one grew before, how much more meritorious would it be, for the leading members of our legislature, with ample school funds in their hands (literally wasted for want of due application,) to raise, by a process as simple as the cultivation of two blades of grass, the intellectual character of the inhabitants of this state.

In a letter to Hon. William L. Marcy, dated 13th Dec., 1832, Mr. Wadsworth urges him to introduce the subject in his message to the legislature, in 1833.

If I am correct in my views, it is quite practicable to pass into the minds of our youth, scientific knowledge, scientific facts, and scientific reasons of thousands of physical phenomena, of constant occurrence through life. If, after a little reflection, you should approve the plan, at least so far as to make the experiment (the expense of the experiment would be too trifling for a moment's consideration,) I respectfully request you to call the attention of the legislature to the improvement of our common schools and to a distinct expression of your opinion, that scientific instruction may be introduced in our common schools, by means of lectures adapted to the capacities of children—the lectures to be read by the schoolmaster.

Gov. Clinton was fully convinced that something further could be done for our district schools, as will appear in two or three of his last messages. He speaks

of the useless repetition going on in our common schools. He might have justly added that, notwithstanding the vast expense and time spent, they teach little more than mothers teach, that is, to read and write—to read and write are only the stepping-stones, to knowledge. By cultivating the minds of youth, you give to the adult man twofold energies and powers, and thereby enable one man to do what otherwise would require the unskillful labor of two men. This is the true tariff—the legitimate tariff, which every government is in duty bound to enact, and to carry into faithful execution, for the benefit of its citizens. Certainly, the political prospects of that state are best, whose youth are best instructed.

The School District Library System, as it was finally introduced into New York, owes its origin and rapid extension to the unwearied efforts and the open liberality of Mr. Wadsworth. The distribution of Hall's "*Lectures*" to the several school districts, led to the very natural idea of supplying all the children, as well as teachers and parents, with other books suited to their capacity and wants. To accomplish this great object, Mr. Wadsworth availed himself of his correspondence with gentlemen who were situated to act efficiently on the public mind and the legislature, as the following extracts from his letters will show.

GENESEO, 23*d July*, 1833.

I wish some of you gentlemen who have leisure would write a series of short essays on the Common School Act. A historical sketch of the rise and progress of the common schools of New England, in connection with the great chapter on the civilization of man, would be a most useful work. We see what New England is with her common schools, very imperfect as they most certainly are—what would her citizens have been without their schools? Probably something like the peasants of Norway. This "School Act," as it is usually called, ought to contain a provision authorizing a majority of the voters to raise, by a tax on the property of each district, fifteen or twenty dollars as a commencement of, and five or ten dollars yearly as a perennial spring, to purchase and sustain *a school library*. How are your youth to acquire knowledge without books? They now do not read books when young, and have no distinct ideas when in advanced life, and yet you call on them to decide on treaties and constitutional questions. Some of these embryo libraries, by the donation of the benevolent, would become highly respectable.

To CHARLES KING, Esq.

GENESEO, *August* 20*th*, 1833.

It is clear you can not make competent citizens of our 500,000 youth without knowledge. And it is equally clear that knowledge can not be obtained without books. It appears to me to be an object to introduce a clause in the "School Act," authorizing, not requiring, a majority of the inhabitants of every school district to raise, by tax, say fifteen or twenty dollars as a commencement of a district school library, and five or ten dollars yearly to sustain it:—as these sums are so moderate that they would not alarm the most economical, and would not be felt, or scarcely perceived. These district school libraries, to be purchased by the trustees, would be a noble beginning toward a more general diffusion of knowledge. It will not be ten years before a weekly paper, devoted to the application of science and the arts to the useful purposes of life, will be sent to every school in the state. I have no doubt there are hundreds of individuals in this state who would cheerfully contribute toward this object, if its importance was brought home to their minds.

B. F. BUTLER, Esq.

GENESEO, 31*st August*, 1833.

DEAR SIR:—I send you a copy of a letter which I have recently addressed to Mr. Butler, and will thank you to lay it before Governor Marcy. I beg leave respectfully to invite the Governor's attention to the suggestions in my letter in relation to the district school libraries. I invite his attention at this time to the subject, because he will have an opportunity to converse with a great number of

gentlemen on his way to Albany, and I am greatly deceived if every individual does not concur in the fitness and expediency of commencing, economically, little district school libraries.

Gen. Levi Hubbell.

Geneseo, *September 20th*, 1833.

Dear Sir:—I am favored with your letter of the 16th inst. I send you a copy of my letter to Mr. Butler, and also one to Mr. Hubbell. My subsequent reflection, and the opinion of several intelligent gentleman, go to confirm me in my opinion in favor of district school libraries. I much hope Governor Marcy will recommend them in his message. Our school districts are moral entities. They are little societies. They are little republics. They are little nurseries of men and women, and our legislation ought to treat and regard them as such.

E. C. Delevan, Esq.

Geneseo, 25*th August*, 1834.

Among the few thoughts that have passed my mind, which I think worth repeating, is the suggestion which I took the liberty of making to his Excellency the Governor, before he delivered his *last winter's message*. I believe you read my letter. I refer to a juvenile library in each school district in this state. I proposed a clause authorizing the inhabitants of each school district to raise twenty dollars by tax, and five dollars yearly afterward, for a school library, to be selected by the trustees. This simple provision, unimportant in a single case, but full of importance and utility in the aggregate, the Governor did not recommend, and I do not know that it was called up to the attention of the legislature.

Jesse Buel, Esq.

The subject was brought to the attention of the legislature by General Dix, in his annual report as superintendent of common schools, and on the 13th of April, 1835, the foundations of the district school library were laid by an act authorizing the taxable inhabitants of the several school districts to impose a tax, not exceeding twenty dollars for the first year, and ten dollars for each succeeding year, "for the purchase of a district library," consisting of such books as they shall in their district meeting direct.

Unwearied efforts were made to induce the inhabitants of school districts to raise the sum necessary to purchase a suitable number of books to constitute a library. Mr. Wadsworth offered to pay one-fourth of the twenty dollars in all the districts in Avon and Geneseo. The proposition was received with cold indifference. Twenty dollars were offered to the first five districts in Henrietta, which should act under the law, but the offer was not accepted for several years. The Rev. Mr. Page was employed by him to visit and give lectures on the subject in all the towns of Livingston County.

Finding that the process of introducing the libraries on the voluntary plan was slow, Mr. Wadsworth proposed to devote a portion of the income of the United States Deposit Fund in aid of district libraries, and to make it obligatory on the districts to tax themselves to the same amount, for the same object. His plan, substantially, was recommended by Governor Marcy, in his message, in 1838, and matured and advocated in a very able manner by the committee on colleges and common schools, of which Hon. D. D. Barnard, of Albany, was chairman. The bill reported by the committee became the district libra-

ry law of 1838, by which $55,000 a year, for three years, were appropriated from the public treasury, out of the income of the United States Deposit Fund, and the same amount was required to be raised by direct tax, for the purchase of books in the several districts of the state. The bill was saved at a critical period by the exertions of Hon. G. W. Patterson,* who was then speaker of the house. In 1839, the operation of the law was extended to five instead of three years, and at the expiration of that time, it was made permanent.

"New York," remarks Hon. Henry S. Randall, of Cortland county, in his report on district school libraries, in 1844, "has the proud honor of being the first government in the world, which has established a free library system adequate to the wants of her whole population. It extends its benefits equally to all conditions, and in all local situations. It not only gives profitable employment to the man of leisure, but it passes the threshold of the laborer, offering him amusement and instruction after his daily toil is over, without increasing his fatigues or subtracting from his earnings. It is an interesting reflection that there is no portion of our territory so wild or remote, where man has penetrated, that the library has not peopled the wilderness around him with the good and wise of this and other ages, who address to him their silent monitions, cultivating and strengthening within him, even amidst his rude pursuits, the principles of humanity and civilization. This philanthropic and admirably conceived measure may be justly regarded as, next to the institution of common schools, the most important in that series of causes, which will give its distinctive character to our civilization as a people."

* In answer to a letter of inquiry, written in 1842, as to the origin of the Library System, Mr. Patterson replied as follows: "In regard to the origin of the School District Library System of this state, I will say to you, that the whole credit belongs to Hon. James Wadsworth, of Geneseo, who first suggested the plan to certain members of the legislature, in 1833, and, through his urgent solicitation, a law was passed in that year, authorizing the several school districts in the state to raise the sum of twenty dollars, by tax, the first year, and ten dollars each succeeding year, for the purchase of a district library. A few districts availed themselves of the benefit of the law, but a large portion kept their eyes and purses closed against the provisions of that act. In 1838, when the legislature was about to appropriate the income of the United States Deposit Fund, another effort was made by the same distinguished individual, to induce the members to make suitable provisions for district libraries. In this he was also successful, and the sum of fifty-five thousand dollars annually, for three years, was appropriated for district libraries, with a provision requiring the towns and cities in the state to raise an equal sum, for the same purpose; and, by the act of 1839, the appropriations were extended to five, in place of three years, and at the expiration of that time it will be for the districts to determine, whether that portion of the public money shall be used for the purchase of books, or for the payment of teachers' wages.

In regard to the part I took on the subject of libraries, I have only to say it was a very humble one. The act of 1838 was violently opposed, and required great efforts, on the part of the friends of the bill, to effect its passage. In this effort I only endeavored to do my duty, and my whole duty, and I never supposed that any thing that I said or did, would excite sufficient interest to make any portion worth preserving.

The credit of all that has been done belongs to the praiseworthy efforts of Mr. Wadsworth."
To Henry Barnard, Esq.

The appearance of Mrs. Austin's translation of Victor Cousin's "*Report on Public Instruction in Prussia*" was welcomed by Mr. Wadsworth, as an example of what could be done under a despotic government for the organization and practical working of a system of public schools, comprehensive, thorough, and universal, and at the same time, as an argument and stimulus for the introduction here of a similar system, modified in its details of studies and management, to suit the conditions of our society and political institutions. He accordingly encouraged its republication, by taking a large number of copies for distribution among his correspondents, school officers, and active friends of education in different states. Probably no other educational book, for the ten years following its publication, furnished, directly and indirectly, more material in facts and suggestions, for elaborate reviews, newspaper essays, public addresses, and official reports in the wide field of educational discussion, or did more to enlist men of the highest order of mind in the work of school improvement.

When Mr. J. Orville Taylor commenced, in May, 1836, the publication of a "monthly paper for the improvement of common school education," with the title of "*The Common School Assistant*," Mr. Wadsworth encouraged the effort by a liberal subscription, and by an annual contribution to enable the editor to visit different parts of the country, and lecture on the subject to which the periodical was devoted On the discontinuance of "*The Common School Assistant*," and the appearance of Mr. Francis Dwight's "*District School Journal for the State of New York*," in March, 1840, Mr. Wadsworth immediately ordered the "*Journal*" to be sent, at his expense, to every clergyman in Livingston County, and, from time to time, paid the entire cost of publishing editions of twenty thousand copies of certain numbers, devoted to important subjects. Among these extra issues was a number devoted to the "construction of school-houses, with plans," made up from Mr. Mann's and Mr. Barnard's reports on the subject; Mr. Mann's "*Fifth Annual Report as Secretary of the Board of Education of Massachusetts*," devoted to an exposition of the difference in productive power and pecuniary returns between educated and ignorant labor; and Mr. Barnard's "*Report on a System of Common Schools for Cities and Large Villages*," with a full account of the organization and working of the public schools of Boston, Salem, Lowell, Nantucket, Roxbury, Newburyport, Charlestown, Worcester, Philadelphia, Lancaster, Cincinnati, Portland, and New York. These numbers of the "*Journal*," each equal to a pamphlet of one hundred pages, scattered broadcast over the state and the country, contributed largely to the advancement of common schools.

Soon after the distribution among the school districts of New York of Hall's "*Lectures on School-Keeping*," Mr. Wadsworth conceived the plan for introducing improved text-books into the schools, by inducing the best writers of the country to compete in their preparation, and then by publishing them in such a manner as to afford them to parents at the lowest possible cost of manufacture. For this purpose he placed the sum of thirty thousand dollars in trust, a portion of which was offered in premiums for the best elementary treatise on certain specified subjects, and the balance was to be expended in stereotyping the successful treatises. The umpires,—men of the highest political standing, and of unquestioned integrity, were too much occupied with their regular avocations, and too little acquainted or too little interested in the object in view, to execute the trust effectually, and the result was an expenditure of many thousand dollars to no apparent good purpose. But the failure of that plan led to the preparation and publication, in 1842, of one of the most valuable contributions to our educational literature,—"*The School and the Schoolmaster*." The First Part, on the school, its objects, relations, and uses, with a sketch of the education most needed in the United States, the present state of common schools, the best means of improving them, and the consequent duties of parents and school officers, was prepared by Prof. Alonzo Potter, of Union College (now bishop of the Episcopal church of Pennsylvania.) The Second Part,—on the proper character, studies, and duties of the teacher, with the best methods for the government and instruction of common schools, and the principles on which school-houses should be built, arranged, warmed, and ventilated, was prepared by Mr. George B. Emerson, of Boston. Mr. Wadsworth paid, out of the unexpended balance of the trust fund above described, to each of the authors a liberal compensation for their copyright in the work, and then paid the entire expense of publishing an edition of fifteen thousand copies for distribution among the eleven thousand school districts of the State of New York, and among his friends, and the active promoters of educational improvement in the different states. By this liberal expenditure, the wise instructions of two such masters of education as Bishop Potter and Mr. Emerson have already reached thousands of teachers and parents, and tens of thousands of children and youth, and will continue to do so in all future time.

Mr. Wadsworth was all his life a liberal contributor to the erection of school-houses and churches, in his own town and county, and to every object of educational improvement. His annual donations in aid of lecturers on scientific topics amounted to a large sum. Before

his death he erected, in the village of Geneseo, a building for the accommodation of a public library, and of apparatus for illustrating scientific lectures,—supplying both the library and the apparatus at his own expense, and endowing the institution with the sum of ten thousand dollars, for the increase of its means of instruction.

In these and other ways, it is estimated that Mr. Wadsworth expended over ninety thousand dollars in the advancement of popular education, besides the greater service of the example of a gentleman of large estate, and the highest social position, taking a constant personal interest in the welfare of his fellow-men, and administering his own charities with the same careful attention that he paid to the management of his estate.

WESTERN COLLEGE SOCIETY.

The Western College Society originated in the depressed condition of the Western Reserve, Marietta, Wabash and Illinois Colleges, and Lane Theological Seminary, resulting from the financial reverses of 1837–42. These institutions had, in their infancy, been approved and liberally aided by the Eastern churches, and for years they had gone on prosperously—now, in common with the rest of the country, they were deep in debt, and threatened with ruin. Their combined losses, from the inability of benefactors to redeem their pledges, amounted to $200,000—their combined indebtedness, to over $100,000—their combined resources in buildings, vested funds, Western lands, &c., to some $400,000. The only alternatives were a ruinous sacrifice of property or farther applications to the East for aid. But such applications were most discouragingly received. Yet the thought of abandoning these enterprises, upon which so many years of labor and so much money had already been expended, and to the apparently almost irreparable detriment of the cause of higher education in the West, was, to many minds, agonizing.

In June, 1842, at a convention of the Western churches at Cincinnati, their critical condition came under consideration, and the idea was advanced of uniting under one head the several agencies of these institutions.[1] For six months the subject was discussed in private circles from the Atlantic to the Mississippi.[2] In March, 1843, delegates from Illinois, Wabash and Marietta Colleges, and from Lane Seminary, met in Cincinnati and agreed in uniting to call a meeting at New York to consider the expediency of forming an Eastern Association for their support and endowment[3]—the only question being, "Would it be sanctioned by the Eastern churches?" Private circles, public meetings and ecclesiastical bodies were extensively addressed by Dr. Lyman Beecher and others. The meeting was held in New York in May following, and similar meetings were also held in Boston and Philadelphia.[4] The result was a general meeting of delegates in New York on the 30th June, 1843, and the

formation of the SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF COLLEGIATE AND THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION AT THE WEST.[5]

Its Constitution declared the object of the Society to be "to afford assistance to Collegiate and Theological Institutions at the West, in such manner, and so long only, as in the judgment of the directors of the Society, the exigencies of the Institutions may demand." The Hon. B. F. Butler, of New York city, was elected President, with six Vice-Presidents and a Board of eighteen directors, all pastors or members of Congregational and Presbyterian churches in the Eastern and Middle States. The first meeting of the Directors took place in September, 1843; the above-named five institutions (being the only prominent ones that had been commenced under the auspices of the denominations sustaining the Society) made applications for aid, and the Board agreed to meet the deficiencies in the annual expenses, but to make no appropriations for the removal of debts. By this means the several faculties were enabled to retain their places, the institutions continued in operation, the sacrifice of property was avoided, and time given to procure permanent endowments, while the friends of the institutions at home were encouraged to efforts for the removal of existing debts. The assumption of this responsibility by the Society assured access to the Eastern churches and a willing response, an economical collection of funds, and a judicious expenditure of them.

The Corresponding Secretary, Rev. Theron Baldwin, who has held that office from the commencement of the Society till the present time, and upon whose energy and skill its success has largely depended, entered diligently into the work, and by the agency of the officers of the different institutions, the sum of $17,000 was raised during the year, which was distributed among them as their several needs demanded.

For twenty years the Society has now been in operation. It has held its annual meetings and made its annual reports. These reports give in considerable detail the operations of the Society and the history and condition, year by year, of the institutions aided by it, and as published together with the other permanent documents of the Society, form a mass of most interesting and valuable information respecting the progress of higher education at the West.

In its operation the Society acts in the place of the several individual institutions, brings the work of their support under the control of a single Board composed of Eastern men, and makes that Board responsible for thorough investigation and a discriminating use of its funds. To secure this, each institution, on making appli-

cation, is required to furnish documents in relation to its terms of incorporation—its officers, teachers and students—its financial, statistical, social and religious state—its relation to other similar societies, &c., &c., that its true condition and prospective importance may be seen. To this has been added, in special cases, personal examination by a committee of the Board. Several such special committees have been sent to the West for the purposes of investigation. Appropriations have been made for no other objects than the support of instructors and the purchase of books or of apparatus. The policy at first adopted was to have nothing to do with endowments, either directly or indirectly. But after some years this was so far modified that they were secured under the direction of the Society, for the benefit of particular institutions, but such funds did not pass through the treasury though reported in connection with other donations. They are now, however, received into the treasury and appropriated in accordance with the expressed wishes of the donors.

The agents employed for the collection of funds, during the first year of the Society, were the officers of the five institutions originally aided. Certain amounts were fixed for each by the Board, and they were allowed to make collections to that extent and remit directly to the West. But this method was discontinued, in order to place the Society more distinctly before the public as the common representative of all, and for the five following years three special agents were engaged in addition to the Secretary, and during the next five years an additional one was employed. From the twelfth to the sixteenth year inclusive, only two regular agents were employed, though for some years one or more representatives of the six colleges east of the Mississippi, then receiving aid, were successively in the field with a view of raising, by a final effort, the amounts necessary to place them upon an independent footing. Since the seventeenth year but a single agent has been in the service of the Society, in addition to the Secretary, with the exception of special agents for the several colleges acting for limited periods.

The total amount of funds received into the treasury in the first twenty-one years was $367,745.58—to which may be added, as a moderate estimate, $100,000 which went directly from the Society's field to the several institutions for endowments, the larger portion of which was collected under its direct sanction and influence. The expenses of the Society during the same time were about $95,000. Such, moreover, has been the stimulating effect of the Society's action upon the West, that from one to three dollars are supposed to have been realized by the several institutions on their own field, for every one secured at the East.

Appropriations had at first been limited to the five institutions already mentioned, viz.: the Western Reserve, Marietta, Wabash, and Illinois Colleges and Lane Theological Seminary. The first to be added to the list was Knox College, in 1846, after two years discussion upon the question of propriety and expediency of extending assistance to other colleges. Since then other institutions have been added—Wittenberg College, in 1847—Beloit, in 1848—Iowa College, and the Theological Department of the German Evangelical Missouri College, in 1851—Heidelberg College, and the Pacific University, in 1853—the College of California, in 1855—and Oberlin College, in 1863. Small appropriations have also been made to St. Paul, Yellow Springs, and Webster Colleges. By the aid thus rendered, and by the contributions which the institutions were enabled to make by persistent and long-continued effort at home, or, by special consent of the Society, at the East, Western Reserve College succeeded in struggling forth from under a debt of $32,000, and, in 1850, stood independent of farther aid—Lane Seminary, with a debt of $12,000, received its last appropriation in the same year—Illinois College, with $27,000 debt, was free in 1858—Marietta College, owing $18,000, needed, by the last year's report, but $2,000 to fill its needed endowments, and Heidelberg College a like sum—Wabash College, with a debt of $17,000, now needs to raise but $7,000 additional—while Knox and Wittenberg Colleges have received no appropriations since 1855 and 1857 respectively. At the meeting of the Board of Directors of the Society in 1863, measures were taken to secure, if possible, the completion of the effort in favor of Wabash, Marietta, Heidelberg and Beloit Colleges, within the present year, and it was recommended that a final effort be undertaken in behalf of Iowa and Oberlin Colleges.[6]

The amount of real and permanent good thus effected by the Society can not be estimated. That it is very great can not be doubted, whether regard be had to the institutions themselves alone, and the limited circles within which their direct influence is effectual, or to the whole cause of higher Christian education throughout all the West. No one can rightly estimate the evils that would have followed the extinction of these few institutions, and once surely planted as they now are, the future only can reveal how manifold—whether thirty, sixty, or many hundred fold—shall be the harvests of blessing to be thence gathered. And when the institutions still under its charge shall have grown beyond the need of its nursing care, there will still lie before it a work of indefinite greatness and importance in behalf of the colleges that are fated to

exist in Minnesota and Nebraska, in Kansas and the cities of the plains beyond—or mayhap it shall be its duty to rear anew the crumbled walls of Southern Universities, and breathe the breath of a new life into what barbarous war may have left of once flourishing schools and colleges.

NOTES.

Before the preparation of the preceding article, we had repeatedly solicited from the Secretary, Rev. Theron Baldwin, D. D., a history of the Society, which he failed to furnish, mainly on the ground that so much of it was personal to himself. We now learn that he has determined to collect the scattered materials and put them in the form of a connected narrative. From these materials we are permitted to make the following corrections and additions, which we subjoin in the form of notes to the original article:—

[1] (Page 261.) The original idea of the Society was not "advanced" at the "Convention of Western Churches at Cincinnati"—but, in the language of the first Annual Report, "afterwards occurred to a member of that Convention," which member was Mr. Baldwin himself. Other minds may have been turned in the same direction, for it often happens that in times of great emergency minds far asunder are led almost simultaneously and without communication to the same conclusion, yet in this case it seems indisputable that with Mr. Baldwin originated the idea which led directly and clearly to the organization of the College Society.

The Convention, which commenced its session on the 9th of June, 1842, was composed of more than fifty delegates, chiefly from the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Kentucky. Special committees were appointed on no less than nine different topics, among which was the subject of education, especially as represented by the higher institutions of learning, and also that of a religious newspaper as the organ of the Western churches. Dr. Lyman Beecher, as Chairman of the first committee, reported a series of resolutions, asserting that well endowed institutions for the education of a ministry were essential to the prosperity of the Church—that for such endowments, reliance must be placed, not upon State patronage, but upon the benevolence of Christian churches and individuals—that Lane Seminary and the Theological Department of Western Reserve College were worthy of confidence for soundness in the faith and the thoroughness of their systems of instruction—that Western Reserve, Marietta, Wabash, and Illinois Colleges deserved the support and confidence of the churches, and that great injury to the cause of Christ would be the result of their being crippled for the want of endowments—that serious concern was felt in view of their actual languishing condition—that gratitude should be felt for past aid received from the East, as well as alarm in view of its threatened withdrawal—that pastors and churches at the West should be urged to come to the assistance of the above-named institutions—and that they should "encourage themselves in the Lord and not despond." Yet the distinctive idea of an *organization* that should promote the common interests of these several institutions, was not so much as hinted at in all the proceedings of the Convention.

On the other hand, the Committee on a Religious Paper, of which Mr. Baldwin was a member, made a report, which was adopted, recommending the establishment of a paper with five distinct editorial committees, consisting of the

faculties of the five above-mentioned institutions. This idea was taken from the "Baptist Banner," then published at Louisville, Ky., and which had its Kentucky side, Ohio side, &c. After the adjournment of the Convention, Mr. Baldwin left for the East with a view of exciting an interest in behalf of the Monticello Female Seminary in Illinois, of which he was then Principal. While on the passage up the Ohio, reflection upon the condition of the Western colleges and upon the proceedings of the Convention first suggested the argument—"If we can have common discussion, why not common action?"—and the idea of an organization that should embrace the interests of all in one cause, so far as Eastern aid was concerned, then first dawned upon his mind like a new revelation.

[8] (Page 261.) The most feasible plan, for effecting the contemplated work, that suggested itself to Mr. Baldwin as he traveled on over the Alleghanies, was, that it should be assumed by the Home Missionary Society—thus giving additional sublimity and power to the Home Missionary argument. But upon consultation with the Rev. Charles Hall, then one of the secretaries of that Society, so many practical difficulties were interposed, that all idea of such an arrangement was abandoned. The subject was again called up while on his way in a stage-coach, from Litchfield, Ct., to Hartford, in a conversation with a distinguished civilian of that State respecting Western institutions. At Farmington the company was unexpectedly joined by the Rev. Edward Beecher, President of Illinois College, who was then at the East engaged in what often seemed fruitless efforts to raise funds for that institution. He at once fell in with the scheme as unfolded to him by Mr. Baldwin—indeed, something akin to it seems to have occurred to his own mind—and it was agreed between them that private consultations should be held with others upon the subject, as opportunity offered. In the course of the summer not a few individuals were found who favored the scheme; and Mr. Baldwin was the more confirmed in his opinion of the necessity of some such action, by the numerous instances, which fell under his observation, where the conflicting interests and movements of the agents of the Western institutions, then at the East, created dissatisfaction and prejudice among the churches and weakened the whole cause.

On Mr. Baldwin's return to the West, late in the fall, he promised to stop at Lane Seminary and have an interview with the Faculty, provided Dr. Edward Beecher would write to his father in relation to the project. This Mr. Beecher failed to do on the ground of its apparent utter impracticability. Mr. Baldwin, however, met the Faculty at Lane, together with the Rev. Mr. Goodman, Editor of the "Watchman of the Valley." The scheme in question was new to all of them, but after its outlines were given and a general account of the state of the Eastern mind, Dr. Beecher, in his quick, earnest manner, exclaimed, "Here is light! Here is light!"

[9] (Page 261.) The first practical question that arose was—"Can the different Institutions at the West agree to work together?" Arrangements were accordingly made on the spot for securing a meeting of delegates that should represent these interests. Delegates were appointed by Illinois, Wabash, and Marietta Colleges, and met with the Faculty of Lane Seminary, the Western Reserve College answering only by letter and declining to enter into the proposed combination. After a full exhibition on the part of each delegate of the condition of his institution and a most thorough discussion of all the points involved,

the unanimous conclusion was reached that it was expedient to attempt the organization in question. This action, however, was not regarded as final, but was referred to Rev. Drs. Beecher and Lindsley, Rev. Edward Beecher, and Prof. Caleb Mills, representing the four institutions, who were to meet in New York in the May following. These individuals there reviewed and sanctioned the doings of the Convention at Cincinnati, and then in order to ascertain whether the movement would be sanctioned at the East, "convened three successive meetings in New York on Anniversary week, the last of which resulted in a unanimous vote of a large number of ministers and laymen that it was expedient to organize a Society for the preservation and extension of our Colleges and Seminaries at the West."

[4] (Page 261.) Similar meetings were also held in New Haven, Hartford, and elsewhere. The General Associations of Connecticut and Massachusetts were also addressed. Into these particular movements the venerable Dr. Beecher threw himself with all his characteristic ardor and power, and did a work of which probably no other living man was capable.

[5] (Page 262.) At the time of the organization, the officers were all chosen except the Corresponding Secretary. The Board of Directors were empowered to make this choice at an adjourned meeting to be held on the 26th of September. A letter from Dr. Beecher to Mr. Baldwin, dated at Boston, June 14th, 1843, describes in glowing terms the success thus far achieved and the certainty of the organization on the 30th—with the assurance that the friends of the organization, East and West, had unanimously fixed upon Mr. Baldwin as the one to fill the office of Corresponding Secretary. In an argument to induce him to accept the position, into which he throws his peculiar strength and fervor, he thus gives his own views of the origin of the Society:—"I could say more, but as this business of our Convention of Colleges and an organization in their behalf is chiefly your own child, it is fair that you should own your progeny and nurse it at least for a year." In September he wrote again at great length, and again in October, after the appointment of Mr. Baldwin had been made, reaffirming the "universal verdict" in approval of the selection and urging his acceptance. Here again he says:—"Now remember, this plan of a Society, though thought of by others independently, is your child. It was your suggestions to us in our consultations at Lane that nurtured it in the womb and brought it forth and placed between such high hopes and threatening dangers."

[6] (Page 264.) The effort in behalf of Wabash, Marietta, and Beloit Colleges was a complete success, so that in the fall of 1864 they took their leave of the Society as no longer needing its aid—making eight institutions in all that have reached that point.

The "Permanent Documents," published by the Society from year to year, have embraced, besides the valuable annual reports of the Secretary, a large number of able addresses and essays upon topics intimately connected with the objects of the Society and collegiate education generally, as well as several able addresses confined to the immediate operations and plans of the Society, by Rev. S. H. Cox, D. D., Rev. Mark Hopkins, D. D., Rev. J. M. Sturtevant, D. D., Rev. A. D. Eddy, D. D., and other eminent scholars and divines. Among the former may be mentioned the following:—

Plea for Western Colleges, by Prof. T. M. Post, D. D.

Plea in behalf of Western Colleges, by Rev. A. Barnes, D. D.

Collegiate and Theological Education at the West, by Rev. N. S. S. Beman, D. D.

Colleges essential to the Church of God; Plain Letters addressed to a Parishioner, by Rev. John Todd, D. D.

Plea for College Libraries, with reference to the wants of Western Institutions, by Prof. Noah Porter, Jr., D. D.

Christianity and Learning, by Rev. Leonard Bacon, D. D.

Collegiate Education, by Prof. C. B. Haddock, D. D.

Education at the West in its claims on the Church, by Rev. J. B. Condit, D. D.

The Question at Issue, by Rev. E. Beecher, D. D.

Utility of Collegiate and Professional Schools, by Prof. E. A. Park, D. D.

Education and Evangelism, by Prof. T. H. Skinner, D. D.

Educational Systems of the Puritans and Jesuits compared, by Prof. N. Porter, Jr., D. D. (Prize Essay.)

Colleges, Religious Institutions, by Rev. A. Peters, D. D.

The Church and the College, by Rev. E. N. Kirk, D. D.

Colleges essential to Home Missions, by Rev. E. Hall, D. D.

Colleges and Free Institutions, by Rev. J. H. Towne, D. D.

Colleges a Power in Civilization, to be used for Christ, by Rev. R. S. Storrs, Jr., D. D.

Man and his Institutions, by Rev. H. W. Beecher, D. D.

Prize Essay on Prayer for Colleges, by Prof. W. S. Tyler, D. D.

Colleges; their place among American Institutions, by Prof. W. S. Tyler, D. D.

Argument for Christian Colleges, by Prof. H. B. Smith, D. D.

Mutual coöperation of different Denominations in support of Christian Colleges, by Rev. A. Peters, D. D.

The College as a Religious Institution, by Rev. J. P. Thompson, D. D.

Liberal Education a necessity of the Church, by Rev. J. F. Stearns, D. D.

Literary Institutions necessary to the universal diffusion of Christianity, by Prof. C. E. Stowe, D. D.

Organic Development of Christianity in the direction of Education and Learning, by Rev. J. W. Wellman, D. D.

Christianity essential to true Education, by Rev. S. T. Seelye, D. D.



Sincerely Yours
Theron Baldwin

originally framed, his study and investigation of the whole subject of female



THERON BALDWIN, D. D.

THERON BALDWIN, the originator, organizer, and executive officer of the Western College Society, which has elicited and directed the liberality of many isolated individuals in different parts of the country so as to have already placed eight colleges on a firm foundation, and which, in the prosecution of this special mission, has diffused widely over the country a more just appreciation of liberal culture and helped to make provision for its support a Christian duty, was born in Goshen, Conn., July 21, 1801. His father, Elisha Baldwin, a native of Guilford and in the direct line of descent from Nathaniel Baldwin, (son of Richard, of St. Leonards, near Wendover, England,) whose family reached Boston in 1638, belonged to that sturdy stock of Connecticut farmers who contrive to earn out of a reluctant soil not only a comfortable support, but the means to give all the members of the family a good elementary training, and to one or more of them some help towards a college education. After running the career of so many boys of this class, learning all that the district-school of that day could teach, clearing timber, following the plow, and doing every species of farmwork in the summer, and teaching school and reading good books in winter, young Baldwin, by the advice of his brother, Rev. Abraham Baldwin, a graduate of Yale College, commenced his preparation after he had completed his twenty-first year, and after two years of study entered in May, 1823, the third term of the Freshman class of Yale College.

After graduating in 1827 among the best of his class, he pursued his theological studies in the seminary at New Haven, where his mind and heart became interested in carrying out the scheme of a religious and educational mission, (The Illinois Association,) out of which grew the Illinois College and many associated enterprises in that State and in the West. In the fall of 1829 he went to Illinois in company with Rev. J. M. Sturtevant, as pioneers of the Association, and fixed his first missionary station at Vandalia. He was here active in procuring the charter for Illinois College and drew up the report of the legislative committee through whose influence the act of incorporation was secured in 1834. Two summers were spent at the East in procuring funds for this Institution, and for several years his field was the State, and his specific aims, as an agent of the American Home Missionary Society, to organize churches, locate missionaries, and enlighten the public mind in every way on the subject of schools and education as essential parts of Christian civilization.

Mr. Baldwin was for a time in correspondence with Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet in preparing the way for a religious and educational movement in the West, which was started by an association formed in Hartford, Conn., in 1835, and in the following year he committed himself to the inauguration of a seminary for female education at Monticello, Madison county, Illinois, which originated in the liberality of Benjamin Godfrey, a native of Cape Cod, then a resident of Alton. This institution he left in 1843, but not until he had organized and established it as a great school for the substantial, extensive, and practical education of the female sex. Up to this time (1865) over 1,700 young ladies have been educated at this institution, and upwards of 300 female teachers have there been qualified for their special work. In his "Historical Address," delivered at the seventeenth anniversary, (June 27, 1855,) Mr. Baldwin refers to the care with which the system of instruction and management of the Seminary was originally framed, his study and investigation of the whole subject of female ed-

ucation, his examination of the most prominent seminaries at the East, his conferences with Miss Mary Lyon, Miss Z. P. Grant, and obligations to Miss C. E. Beecher—all demonstrating the conscientious thoroughness with which the work was commenced and carried on.

In the spring of 1842, in the deep gloom which the pecuniary disasters of the period had cast over the religious and educational enterprises of the West, and in the spasmodic and conflicting efforts of each institution to save its own by urgent appeals to the liberality of Eastern friends, the happy thought occurred to Mr. Baldwin of organizing these efforts into a systematic and permanent plan of benevolence. Through the enthusiastic and influential appeals of Rev. Dr. Lyman Beecher and the exertions of other friends of the cause of Christian education at the West, the "Western College Society" was successfully organized, and with one accord Rev. Theron Baldwin was designated to do its appointed work. Twenty years of devoted labor have here been bestowed, and to the satisfaction of institutions and individual benefactors, and of all friends of collegiate education has the work been done. None but those who have been busied in kindred labor, and have labored long in fields where the greater amount of work, and that the most exhausting, lies out of sight even of personal friends, can justly appreciate the amount and burden of silent, unobtrusive toil that has been crowded into these many years. The Annual Reports prepared by M. Baldwin, as Secretary of the Western College Society, are not a simple exhibit of dry details, but each one is designed to discuss some leading topic connected with the subject of Collegiate Education. Among the topics discussed are the following:—The origin and growth of Colleges, both in the Old World and New—their objects and true place in a system of education—their force as an element of power in civilized society, illustrated by the great services of their Alumni, in the pulpit, at the bar, on the bench, in legislative halls, and in all the walks of literature and science—their peculiar relations to the Church in the training of a Christian ministry and the exhibition of the true alliance between learning and religion, with a history of the results of this alliance in our own country—the foundations and appliances necessary to the success of Colleges—argument for endowments—history of the foundations of English Universities, their origin, extent, and conditions annexed—lessons to be learned from these in regard to restrictions, in view of the inevitable changes that must occur in society in the course of centuries—the services of the English Universities in training the men who laid the foundations of this nation—the early planting and rapid growth of Colleges here—the true philosophy of society understood by our Fathers—the place assigned by them to Colleges—our country, considered in respect to its discovery, colonization, and development—foreign emigration in its relation to American destiny—the West presenting a field of unparalleled interest—the glory of founding such institutions—and the wide and permanent results accomplished by the Society, as seen in the aid furnished to Western institutions, saving them from ruin and imparting vigor—in the plea for Colleges as religious institutions, to be made the home of revivals and fountains of piety as well as of learning—and in the comprehensive, systematic, and continuous presentation of the subject of Collegiate Education in the pulpit, on the platform, and through the press, which had no previous parallel in the history of our country, and which has operated strongly to fertilize the whole Eastern field and make it productive for institutions in the older States as well as those at the West.

BOARD OF NATIONAL POPULAR EDUCATION

AND OTHER SOCIETIES FOR THE PROMOTION OF EDUCATION IN THE WEST.

EMIGRATION from New England westward has so linked West and East together that the fast growing educational wants of the newer States could not but attract the early attention and concern of eastern as well as western philanthropists. But whatever may have been done towards relieving the destitution that there prevailed, there seems to have been no organized movement with that design in view earlier than the formation of the *College Society*, which originated at Yale College in 1829, for the purpose of affording "assistance to Collegiate and Theological Institutions of the West," and was largely instrumental in the establishment of Illinois College. This was followed by the organization of a society in Boston in May, 1832, under the name of the *Western Baptist Educational Association*, for the "promotion of common schools and education generally in the Valley of the Mississippi." The Rev. Bela Jacobs was its principal agent, and the Society was instrumental in sending a number of teachers, male and female, to Indiana and Illinois, but it was compelled to suspend operations after two or three years, through the difficulty of raising the necessary funds from the churches of the denomination with which it was connected.

Some ten years passed, when in 1844–5 certain ladies in Cincinnati, prominent among whom was Miss Catherine E. Beecher, commenced an attempt to interest American women in popular education at the West. Circulars were issued and a work entitled "The Duty of American Women to their Country" was extensively circulated and a voluntary temporary agency was employed. The first result was the formation at Cincinnati of the *Central Committee for promoting National Education*, composed of six gentlemen from as many different denominations, viz.:—Rev. Dr. C. E. Stowe, Rev. Dr. C. Elliott, Rev. Dr. S. W. Lynd, Rev. J. H. Perkins, Rev. Dr. W. H. McGuffey, and Bishop Smith. The *Ladies' Society for the promotion of Education at the West* was also soon afterwards formed at Boston.

During 1846–7 meetings of ladies were held in many places, to

awaken public interest and to raise funds for the support of a permanent agent. This resulted in the engagement of the Hon. William Slade, then governor of Vermont, to act as agent of the "Central Board" at Cincinnati, to traverse the country east and west, procure funds and teachers here, and secure their reception and employment there.*

In April, 1847, with increased members and a far larger influence, a permanent organization of the committee was effected under the name of the BOARD OF NATIONAL POPULAR EDUCATION, consisting of twenty-five members, all from the State of Ohio, with Hon. Jeremiah Morrow as president, and Hon. John McLean and Hon. Ebenezer Lane as vice-presidents. This Society continued in operation until 1858, so long as its agent, Gov. Slade, had strength to carry on the work. In him the Society lived, with him it declined. In the eleven years of its existence it sent to the West 481 teachers, mostly or wholly females, from New England and New York with few exceptions, and distributed throughout the West from Ohio to the Pacific. The method pursued was peculiar and added much to the efficiency of the work. Ordinarily in the spring and fall of each year a class of teachers was formed, placed under the charge of an able superintendent, and subjected to a short course of preparatory normal training. The qualifications required of applicants were "competent knowledge, good sense, decided piety, a strong desire to do good, a cheerful, hopeful spirit, and patient energy." The first two classes were prepared under the superintendence of Miss Catherine E. Beecher at Cleveland, the following ones by Miss Nancy Swift, of Northampton, Miss Hannah White, of Newburyport, Miss L. P. Tappan, afterwards Mrs. Grovenor, and Miss L. T. Guilford, of Cleveland, with able assistants. The later classes met at Hartford, which became the center of operations.

The only obligation laid upon the teachers sent out by this Society was the daily use of the Bible in their several schools, and they were also charged to engage actively in the building up and sustaining of Sunday-schools. Pecuniary assistance was afforded to many for defrayment of traveling expenses and for board during the preparatory course. Of the 481 teachers sent out by the Society according to the last (1858) report, 21 had then died, 124 had returned to the East after a service, with few exceptions, of two years or more, and of the 336 who remained, 142 were married. The average expenses of the Society were about $5,000 annually.

* The appointment was offered to Henry Barnard, of Hartford, Conn., but was declined on the ground that the principal motive relied on to stimulate effort was not only not felt by him, but the plan was altogether too narrow for a system of national education to rest or rise on.

The *Ladies' Society for the Promotion of Education at the West* was formed in Boston in February, 1846, with the design of "sending female teachers to the West from the Congregational churches of New England." Its reports show the moving motive to have been opposition to Roman Catholic influence in the Western States. It maintained an independent existence until 1853, up to which time it had sent out 109 teachers. It then united with the last-mentioned Society as the "Boston Branch of the Board of National Popular Education," and died with it.

AMERICAN WOMAN'S EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

SUMMARY.

As arising from the same movement that originated the last two Societies, may be mentioned the *American Woman's Educational Association*, established and sustained mainly through the influence of Miss C. E. Beecher. During the second year of Gov. Slade's agency, a difference arose among the patrons of the "Board" as to the expediency of attempting what had been a part of the original plan, viz.:—the establishment of permanently endowed institutions for women; with the leading features of colleges and professional institutions. This Society was therefore formed in New York in May, 1852, and has published four annual reports. Its objects are stated to be "to create liberal professions for woman, (for the training of the human mind, the care of the human body, and the conservation of the family state,) and secure for her a liberal education, and employment in her appropriate professions." Through its agency Female Colleges have been founded at Milwaukee and Dubuque, with normal departments and other distinctive features as proposed by this Association, which are largely attended but not yet complete in their organization. Having seen thus far accomplished in the cause of female education what had been the object of very many years hope and endeavor, Miss Beecher withdrew from the management of the Society in 1856, since which time no reports of its operations have been published.

The four reports published, contain valuable suggestions on the distinctive objects of the Association, and especially on the importance of providing institutions, with endowments to lift them above temporary failures of pupils, and to secure well equipped departments for the practical instruction and training of women in teaching, in domestic economy, and the conservation of health.

WILLIAM SLADE.

WILLIAM SLADE was born in Cornwall, Vt., May 9, 1786; he entered Middlebury College at the age of seventeen, and graduated with the reputation of being the best linguist in his class. He connected himself with the church in his Junior year. On leaving college he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1810, and soon gained a reputation as a Christian lawyer. An ardent supporter of Jefferson and Madison, he from 1814 to 1816 edited a political paper, the *Columbian Patriot*, at Middlebury, and became recognized as a party leader in the State. He was Secretary of State from 1815 to 1822, from 1824 to 1829 a clerk in the Department of State at Washington, from 1831 to 1843 a representative in Congress. In 1844 he was elected governor of the State, and re-elected in the following year. In 1846 he accepted the agency of the above Society and entered upon his duties with ardent zeal and hopeful enthusiasm. Upon him devolved all the care of raising funds (excepting the voluntary aid furnished in some of the larger towns at the East) and disbursing them, securing places for teachers and securing teachers suited to the wants of each place, conducting the large correspondence of the Society, &c. His duties required much travel, much public speaking, and much fatiguing labor, but it was cheerfully borne. Class after class of lady teachers did he conduct to the West and place in their future homes, and his genuine and heartfelt piety, sound head and clear understanding, made him fit counselor for those faithful teachers going forth to labor alone among strangers. His financial ability, unusual in such positions, is shown by the fact that every annual report exhibited a balance in the treasury. He also took a strong interest in the cause of education in his native State and to his influence is due much of the excellence of the Vermont school system. Indeed, wherever might be the opening through which to reach and benefit the people, he was ever ready to respond to every call, and even to the last year of his life "this was his burden of desire—to do something more for the good of the race." He died January 16, 1859.

CATHERINE E. BEECHER.

MISS CATHERINE E. BEECHER, eldest daughter of Lyman Beecher, D. D., was born at East Hampton, L. I., Sept. 6, 1800, where she resided till about ten years of age. She received her early education at Litchfield. In 1822 she opened a female seminary at Hartford, Conn., where she successfully continued the work of instruction for the next ten years, during which time she published several text-books, "Suggestions on Female Education," "Mental and Moral Philosophy," and a "Course of Calisthenics for Young Ladies." In 1832 she accompanied her father to Cincinnati, where for two years she was at the head of an institution for female instruction. Obliged to resign by failing health, she conceived and undertook the development of a plan for female Christian education, to be promoted through a national board, with high schools, and normal schools to provide a sufficient supply of well-instructed teachers. This has been made the guiding purpose of her life, for which she has written, traveled, and exerted all the influence of her active mind, in all parts of the country for many years. The incidents of this grand scheme have frequently led her before the public in essays in authorship. Among these are "Domestic Service," "Duty of American Women to their Country," "Domestic Receipt Book," "Domestic Economy," "True Remedy for the Wrongs of American Women," "Physiology and Calisthenics," "Religious Training of Children in the School, the Family, and the Church," and other more strictly religious works.

NORTH-WESTERN EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY.

SUMMARY OF ACTION AND RESULTS.

THE NORTH-WESTERN EDUCATIONAL SOCIETY originated in the Educational Convention which met in Chicago on the 8th of October, 1846, and which continued in session as a convention and a Teachers' Institute for more than a week. To perpetuate the spirit and continue the discussions, this Society was established with William B. Ogden as *President*, G. W. Meeker, *Recording Secretary*, and J. S. Wright, *Corresponding Secretary*, and a Vice-President for each of the nine States represented in the Convention. The second session or first annual meeting was held in Milwaukee, on the 25th of July, 1847; and the third session at Detroit, on the 16th and 17th of August, 1848. These meetings are represented to have been well attended, the addresses able, and the discussions of an uncommonly spirited and practical character. The official records we have not been able to consult. The following are among the resolutions adopted at Milwaukee and Detroit:—Recommending that the public schools be made *free* and *good;* that *Union* or graded schools be organized in all cities and villages; that one or more *Normal Schools* for the professional training of young men and young women of the right character, aspirations, and attainments for the office of teachers, and that *Teachers' Institutes* for the professional improvement of all teachers then in the schools, be forthwith established in every State in the North-west; that the *income* of all State funds shall be increased by the avails of an annual tax levied on all taxable property in every city, town, and county, and that the joint sum be distributed among the towns and districts according to the *school attendance* of children between the ages of six and sixteen for at least six months in the year; that an *Educational Journal* for the whole North-west be established for the advocacy of free public schools; and that the office of *State Superintendent* of Common Schools be at once created in every State, &c., &c. These subjects were fully and ably discussed, and the discussions helped to direct and concentrate the efforts of the friends of school improvement on practical measures, which were soon adopted in nearly every one of these States.

VII. HISTORY OF COMMON SCHOOLS

IN

CONNECTICUT

Mr. Barnard's labors in Connecticut.

FROM 1849 to 1854.

Governor Seymour, in 1850, refers to the School Fund and the Common Schools in the following language:—

The creation of the School Fund is one of the most gratifying facts in our political history. The leading idea of the system is too striking to be overlooked. No society can have a firm basis, and no state that union of freedom with knowledge, which constitutes the best security against the extremes of anarchy and oppression, without the powerful support of a general system of education. With the growth of this fund, a system of common school education has sprung up and spread itself over the state. For a long time, however, it may be said that the system languished, on account of a too great reliance on the fund, which had the effect to relax individual exertions. The present condition of our common schools, at once the boast and the blessing of this state, will be laid before you, in the Report of the Superintendent—a gentleman who has devoted his time and talents to this great subject for many years. Though laboring often under the most discouraging circumstances, he has steadily pursued the lofty purpose which he has had in view, with an industry and perseverance which nothing short of a well-founded faith in the justice of the cause could have inspired. From his Report it will be seen that while schools, in connection with other institutions of learning, are making education the common property of every child in our midst, there is still left room in our system of public instruction, to carry out and enlarge what our fathers so admirably begun.

The "*Fifth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools to the General Assembly for* 1850"—(the first report of Henry Barnard, as Superintendent of Common Schools,) with the accompanying documents, makes a pamphlet of 160 pages.

The following extracts from this document exhibit the progress of education during the year, and the direction in which the friends of school improvement were urged to put forth their efforts.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

My first duty as Superintendent, was to hold at one convenient place in each county of the State, an Institute or Convention of Teachers, for the purpose of instructing in the best modes of governing and teaching our common schools. The whole number of teachers in attendance was seven hundred and fifty, most of whom were already engaged for the winter schools. An account of the course of instruction, the topics of discussion and lectures, together with the resolutions adopted by the members, will be found in the Appendix. For

the cordial manner in which my services were received by the teachers, and for the earnest pledge of their coöperation in the discharge of my duties in this office and in connection with the Normal School, as expressed in their resolutions, I take this occasion to make my grateful and respectful acknowledgments. It is due to the friends of education in the several places where the Institutes were held, to mention that the members and officers of the Institutes were entertained, during the whole time, without expense; and that the evening sessions were attended by large and apparently deeply interested audiences of parents and citizens. It is matter of special satisfaction to me, to find that this agency for improving the qualifications of teachers and disseminating throughout the community more correct views as to what constitutes a good teacher and the conditions of success in a common school, has more than realized, in this and other States, the promises which were made in its behalf after the first experiment of the kind was instituted in Hartford, in the autumn of 1839, with a class of twenty-six teachers. With several members of that first Teachers' Institute or Normal Class, I had the pleasure, at the Institute last autumn, of renewing a personal acquaintance, and reassuring our faith in the further advancement of the cause, by a review of the progress which has been made in this and in other states, within the last ten or twelve years. Slow as may seem the progress from year to year, yet when measured by the interval of ten or twelve years, the advance made in public opinion, and, in many places, in public action, is more than sufficient to encourage the heart of any laborer in any department of the educational field.

To be permanently and extensively useful, the manner of conducting Institutes from time to time must be changed, so as to secure the continued attendance of the older as well as the younger teachers. The object and legitimate scope of these meetings must be, not to become a substitute for the patient, thorough and protracted study, which the mastership of any branch of knowledge requires,—nor yet for the practical drilling which a well conducted Normal School alone can give,—but to refresh the recollection of principles already acquired, by rapid reviews and by new and safe methods of presenting the same, to communicate hints and suggestions in aid of self-improvement, from wise and experienced instructors,—to solve the difficulties and doubts of the inexperienced,—and to enkindle through the sympathies of numbers, engaged in the same pursuits, the aspirations of a true professional feeling. That the Institute may accomplish these objects, teachers must be in attendance at the opening of the session, and enter at once with spirit on the course of instruction, with a desire to please and to be pleased, to learn and to instruct,—they must take each other by the hand and throw over each exercise and session, the glow of an awakened and enkindling enthusiasm.

TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

I have had the pleasure of participating in the exercises of twelve meetings of these Town and County Associations—and would gladly have accepted invitations to be present at more, if it had been consistent with my other engagements. Occasions were thus offered for bringing the subject of school improvement before both parents and teachers, and of showing the intimate connection between the home and the school, the parents and the teacher, in the great work of the complete and thorough education of all the children of the community. These associations, if organized so as to secure the confidence and coöperation of the community, as well as of the teachers, are among the most important instrumentalities for improving the condition of education and imparting new life and efficiency to our school system. The young and inexperienced teacher will obtain the matured views of the best teachers and educators on the great topics of education as brought out in public lectures, discussions and conversations. The attainment of solitary reading will thus be quickened by the action of living mind. The acquisition of one will be tested by the experience and criticism of others. Old and defective methods will be held up, exposed and corrected, while valuable hints will be improved and followed out into practice. The tendency to a dogmatical tone and spirit, to one-sided and narrow views, to a dull monotony of character, which every good teacher seeks to avoid, and to which all professional teachers are exposed, will

be withstood and obviated. The sympathies of a common pursuit, the interchange of ideas, the discussion of topics which concern their common advancement, the necessity of extending their reading and inquiries, and of cultivating the power and habit of oral and written expression in order to meet the demands of these meetings—all these things will attach teachers to each other, will elevate their individual character and attainments, and the social and pecuniary estimate in which the profession is held by the community.

These educational associations deserve the encouragement of the Legislature. A small pecuniary grant to them, on the condition that a similar sum shall be raised by the teachers, as is the case with the appropriation to our county agricultural societies, to meet the necessary expense of holding at least two meetings in each year, of at least two days each, for the express purpose of promoting the interests of common schools, will be returned a thousand fold in the increased zeal and usefulness of teachers, and the consequent advancement of their pupils. The improvement of the hearts and minds, the souls and bodies of all the children of the State, of the means, and implements and methods of school instruction and discipline, should be an object not less dear to the people and the Legislature than the great interest of agriculture. An account of the organization and meetings of several of these associations, will be found in the Appendix.

GENERAL SUPERVISION.

Applications for advice or assistance in matters relating to the creation and alteration of school districts,—the manner of holding district meetings and the proceedings thereof,—the building and repairs of school-houses, including the best modes of ventilating, warming and seating the same,—the finding of good teachers for districts which had neglected or failed to obtain such, and good places for teachers who are out of employment,—the reorganization of the schools in cities and large villages,—the making of regulations respecting the management, studies, books, classification and discipline of the schools in the society,—the quieting of local difficulties and misunderstandings which were growing up in districts, out of the location or building of the school-houses, or the employment or continuation in school of an unsuitable teacher,—the contemplated misapplication of public money to purposes not authorized in the law,—and, in fine, applications, written and personal, for advice in these and other matters, relating to the wide circle of powers and duties appertaining to school societies and districts, to school officers and teachers, have imposed on me the writing, on an average, of at least five letters each day, and as many personal interviews with individuals charged with some responsibility under our school system. Many of these things did not come directly within the scope of my duties, but as they concerned the uniform and efficient administration of the system, or the proper classification, instruction and discipline of the schools, I not only did not feel at liberty to refuse the applications, but on the other hand, felt it a privilege to coöperate in these and in all other ways and efforts to increase the utility and efficiency of our public schools.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

Apart from my official connection with the institution, I felt it to be my duty, as Superintendent of Common Schools, to do every thing in my power, not only to make its objects known, but to facilitate its early organization and opening, as the most important agency which could be employed by the state to increase the usefulness of the common schools, both as to the quality and amount of education given. So anxious were the trustees and officers of the institution to make a beginning of their enterprise, that without waiting for the complete outfit of buildings, apparatus and library, which the people of New Britain had pledged themselves to furnish on the location of the Normal School in that village, the school was opened on the 15th of May, 1850, under as favorable auspices, as to pupils and opportunities for imparting practical knowledge, as any of the seven Normal Schools which are now in successful operation on this continent. At the close of the first week, there were thirty-five Normal pupils in attendance, under the immediate instruction of Rev. T. D. P. Stone, the As-

sociate Principal of the school, assisted by Prof. Guion, three female teachers, and pupils of the Normal School. The four Schools of Practice are supported by the Central District of the New Britain School Society.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL.

The following remarks on the nature, object, and probable results of a Public High School, introduced into this Report, were first addressed to the people of Hartford, in 1838, and were repeated in public addresses in all the cities of the State, in the course of the four years following. In 1846, they were printed as a tract, under the title of "*Considerations respecting a High School*," to promote the establishment of such a School in that city.

By a Public or Common High School, is intended a public or common school for the older and more advanced scholars of the community in which the same is located, in a course of instruction adapted to their age, and intellectual and moral wants, and, to some extent, to their future pursuits in life. It is common or public in the same sense in which the district school, or any lower grade of school established and supported under a general law and for the public benefit, is common or public. It is open to all the children of the community to which the school belongs, under such regulations as to age, attainments, &c., as the good of the institution may require, or the community may adopt. A Public High School is not necessarily a free school. It may be supported by a fund, a public tax, or an assessment or rate of tuition per scholar, or by a combination of all, or any two of these modes. Much less is it a public or common school in the sense of being cheap, inferior, ordinary. To be truly a public school, a High School must embrace in its course of instruction studies which can be more profitably pursued there than in public schools of a lower grade, or which gather their pupils from a more circumscribed territory, and as profitably as in any private school of the same pretensions. It must make a good education common in the highest and best sense of the word common—common because it is good enough for the best, and cheap enough for the poorest family in the community. It would be a mockery of the idea of such a school, to call it a Public High School, if the course of instruction pursued in it is not higher and better than can be got in public schools of a lower grade, or if it does not meet the wants of the wealthiest and best educated families, or, if the course of instruction is liberal and thorough, and at the same time the worthy and talented child of a poor family is shut out from its privileges by a high rate of tuition. The school, to be common practically, must be both cheap and good. To be cheap, its support must be provided for wholly or mainly out of a fund, or by public tax. And to justify the imposition of a public tax, the advantages of such a school must accrue to the whole community. It must be shown to be a common benefit, a common interest, which cannot be secured so well, or at

all, except through the medium of taxation. What, then, are the advantages which may reasonably be anticipated from the establishment of a Public High School, properly organized, instructed, and supervised?

First. Every thing which is now done in the several district schools, and schools of lower grade, can be better done, and in a shorter time, because the teachers will be relieved from the necessity of devoting the time and attention now required by few of the older and more advanced pupils, and can bestow all their time and attention upon the preparatory studies and younger children. These studies will be taught in methods suited to the age and attainments of the pupils. A right beginning can thus be made in the lower schools, in giving a thorough practical knowledge of elementary principles, and in the formation of correct mental and moral habits, which are indispensable to all sound education. All this will be done under the additional stimulus of being early and thoroughly fitted for the High School.

Second. A High School will give completeness to the system of public instruction which may be in operation. It will make suitable provision for the older and more advanced pupils of both sexes, and will admit of the methods of instruction and discipline which cannot be profitably introduced into the schools below. The lower grade of schools—those which are established for young children,—require a large use of oral and simultaneous methods, and a frequent change of place and position on the part of the pupils. The higher branches, especially all mathematical subjects, require patient application and habits of abstraction on the part of the older pupils, which can with difficulty, if at all, be attained by many pupils amid a multiplicity of distracting exercises, movements, and sounds. The recitations of this class of pupils, to be profitable and satisfactory, must be conducted in a manner which requires time, discussion, and explanation, and the undivided attention both of pupils and teacher. The course of instruction provided in the High School will be equal in extent and value to that which may be given in any private school, academy, or female seminary in the place, and which is now virtually denied to the great mass of the children by the burdensome charge of tuition.

As has been already implied, the advantages of a High School should not be confined to the male sex. The great influence of the female sex, as daughters, sisters, wives, mothers, companions, and teachers, in determining the manners, morals, and intelligence of the whole community, leaves no room to question the necessity of providing for the girls the best means of intellectual and moral culture. The course of instruction should embrace the first principles of natural and mechanical philosophy, by which inventive genius and practical skill in the useful arts can be fostered; such studies as navigation, book-keeping, surveying, botany, chemistry, and kindred studies, which are directly connected with success in the varied departments of domestic and inland trade, with foreign commerce, with gardening, agriculture, the manufacturing and domestic arts;

such studies as astronomy, physiology, the history of our own state and nation, the principles of our state and national constitutions, political economy, and moral science; in fine, such a course of study as is now given in more than fifty towns and cities in New England, and which shall prepare every young man, whose parents may desire it, for business, or for college, and give to every young woman a well disciplined mind, high moral aims, refined tastes, gentle and graceful manners, practical views of her own duties, and those resources of health, thought, conversation, and occupation, which bless alike the highest and lowest station in life. When such a course is provided and carried out, the true idea of the High School will be realized.

Third. It will equalize the opportunities of a good education, and exert a happy, social influence throughout the whole community from which it gathers its scholars. From the want of a public school of this character, the children of such families as rely exclusively on the district school are isolated, and are condemned to an inferior education, both in quality and quantity; they are cut off from the stimulus and sympathy which the mingling of children of the same age from different parts of the same community would impart. The benefits, direct and indirect, which will result to the country districts, or poor families who live in the outskirts of the city, from the establishment of a school of this class, cannot easily be overestimated. The number of young men and young women who will receive a thorough education, qualifying them for business, and to be teachers, will increase from year to year; and the number who will press up to the front ranks of scholarship in the school, bearing away the palm of excellence by the vigor of sound minds in sound bodies, of minds and bodies made vigorous by long walks and muscular labor in the open air, will be greater in proportion to their number than from the city districts. It will do both classes good, the children of the city, and the children of the country districts, to measure themselves intellectually in the same fields of study, and to subject the peculiarities of their respective manners, the roughness and awkwardness sometimes characteristic of the one, and the artificiality and flippancy of the other, to the harmonizing influence of reciprocal action and reaction. The isolation and estrangement which now divide and subdivide the community into country and city clans, which, if not hostile, are strangers to each other, will give place to the frequent intercourse and esteem of individual and family friendship, commenced in the school-room, and on the play-ground of the school. The school will thus become a bond of union, a channel of sympathy, a spring-head of healthy influence, and stimulus to the whole community.

Fourth. The privileges of a good school will be brought within the reach of all classes of the community, and will actually be enjoyed by children of the same age from families of the most diverse circumstances as to wealth, education, and occupation. Side by side in the same recitations, heart and hand in the same sports, pressing up together to the same high attainments in knowledge and character, will be found the children of the rich and poor, the more and the

less favored in outward circumstances, without knowing or caring to know how far their families are separated by the arbitrary distinctions which divide and distract society. With nearly equal opportunities of education in childhood and youth, the prizes of life, its best fields of usefulness, and sources of happiness will be open to all, whatever may have been their accidents of birth and fortune. From many obscure and humble homes in the city and in the country, will be called forth and trained inventive talent, productive skill, intellectual taste, and God-like benevolence, which will add to the general wealth, multiply workshops, increase the value of farms, and carry forward every moral and religious enterprise which aims to bless, purify, and elevate society.

Fifth. The influence of the annual or semi-annual examination of candidates for admission into the High School, will operate as a powerful and abiding stimulus to exertion throughout all the lower schools. The privileges of the High School will be held forth as the reward of exertion in the lower grade of schools; and promotion to it, based on the result of an impartial examination, will form an unobjectional standard by which the relative standing of the different schools can be ascertained, and will also indicate the studies and departments of education to which the teachers in particular schools should devote special attention. This influence upon the lower schools, upon scholars and teachers, upon those who reach, and those who do not reach the High School, will be worth more than all it costs, independent of the advantages received by its pupils.

Sixth. While the expenses of public or common schools will necessarily be increased by the establishment of a school of this class, in addition to those already supported, the aggregate expenditures for education, including public and private schools, will be diminished. Private schools of the same relative standing will be discontinued for want of patronage, while those of a higher grade, if really called for by the educational wants of the community, will be improved. A healthy competition will necessarily exist between the public and private schools of the highest grade, and the school or schools which do not come up to the highest mark, must go down in public estimation. Other things being equal, viz., school-houses, teachers, classification, and the means and appliances of instruction, the public school is always better than the private. From the uniform experience of those places where a High School has been established, it may be safely stated, that there will be an annual saving in the expenses of education to any community, equal to one half the amount paid for tuition in private schools, and, with this saving of expense, there will be a better state of education.

Seventh. The successful establishment of a High School, by improving the whole system of common schools, and interesting a larger number of families in the prosperity of the schools, will create a better public sentiment on the subject than has heretofore existed, and the schools will be regarded as the common property, the common glory, the common security of the whole community. The wealthy will feel that the small additional tax required to establish

and sustain this school, if not saved to them in the diminished tuition for the education of their own children in private schools, at home and abroad, is returned to them a hundred fold in the enterprise which it will quicken, in the increased value given to property, and in the number of families which will resort to the place where it is located, as a desirable residence, because of the facilities enjoyed for a good education. The poor will feel that, whatever may betide them, their children are born to an inheritance more valuable than lands or shops, in the free access to institutions where as good an education can be had as money can buy at home or abroad. The stranger will be invited to visit not only the institutions which public or individual benevolence has provided for the poor, the orphan, the deaf mute, and the criminal, but schools where the children and youth of the community are trained to inventive and creative habits of mind, to a practical knowledge of the fundamental principles of business, to sound moral habits, refined tastes, and respectful manners. And in what balance, it has well been asked in reference to the cost of good public schools, as compared with these advantages, shall we weigh the value of cultivated, intelligent, energetic, polished, and virtuous citizens? How much would a community be justified in paying for a physician who should discover or practice some mode of treatment through which many lives should be preserved? How much for a judge, who, in the able administration of the laws, should secure many fortunes, or rights more precious than fortunes, that might else be lost? How much for a minister of religion who should be the instrument of saving hundreds from vice and crime, and persuading them to the exertion of their best powers for the common good? How much for the ingenious inventor, who, proceeding from the first principles of science onward, should produce some improvement that should enlarge all the comforts of society, not to say a steam-engine or a magnetic telegraph? How much for the patriotic statesman, who, in difficult times, becomes the savior of his country? How much for the well-instructed and enterprising merchant who should suggest and commence the branches of business that should bring in a vast accession of wealth and strength? One such person as any of these might repay what a High School would cost for centuries. Whether, in the course of centuries, every High School would produce one such person, it would be useless to prophesy. But it is certain that it would produce many intelligent citizens, intelligent men of business, intelligent servants of the state, intelligent teachers, intelligent wives and daughters, who, in their several spheres, would repay to any community much more than they and all their associates had received. The very taxes of a town, in twenty years, will be lessened by the existence of a school which will continually have sent forth those who were so educated as to become not burdens but benefactors.

These results have been realized wherever a Public High School has been opened under circumstances favorable to the success of a private school of the same grade,—wherever a good school-house, good regulations, (for admission, attendance, studies, and books,) good teachers, and good supervision have been provided.

CONDITION OF THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

There is much in the general aspect of our common schools and our school system, as compared with the means and opportunities of education provided in many states and countries, if not to justify the self-complacency, at least, to inspire the hereditary pride with which the people of Connecticut regard and speak of them. Coeval with our civil and religious institutions, the common school has become a part not only of the legislation but of the daily habits of the people, and the funds which have been set apart from time to time by individuals or state liberality for educational purposes are regarded with a religious sanctity. Scattered all over our territory, through every city and village and neighborhood, and even in the secluded nook, or the rocky and wooded waste, if there the family has planted itself with its domestic relations—the district school is to be seen, with its doors open to receive the children of all classes for at least four months in the year. And these schools, in connection with private schools of various grades, and the press and the pulpit, and the practical working of our domestic and civil institutions, secure not only an elementary education, but a vigorous self-training, as the birthright and the birth-blessing of every child of the State. But when our system is surveyed in reference to our means and facilities of improvement,—when the large mass of our district schools are closely examined, and compared not only with similar schools in some of the neighboring states, but with a few of the best schools in our own State,—then the necessity of doing more than we have yet done in all that relates to organization, school-houses, classification, studies, books, teachers, support and supervision, forces itself upon our attention.

WANT OF RELIABLE INFORMATION.

There is great want of official information—or minute, complete, and authentic information respecting the state of the schools in the several districts and societies.

With the exception of the number of societies and districts, and of the children who are of an age to attend school in each, there is not another item which is known with any degree of accuracy respecting all the schools for the last year. Out of the two hundred and seventeen societies, there are only sixty-eight which have made returns to this department, leaving one hundred and forty-nine societies, numbering over fifty thousand children, for whose education the state provided seventy-five thousand dollars, from which there is not a line of official information to show with what results this large amount of money is expended. Even the reports which have been received from the other societies are so general and so imperfect, that they throw but little light on those details of organization, instruction and discipline in which the success or failure of a common school must be sought. Unless information at once minute and comprehensive, is obtained respecting the schools in every district and society, and disseminated widely among the people, there will be wanting the requisite stimulus, and the firm basis for thorough legislative and local efforts at improvement. The public mind must be made familiar with the actual state of the schools, with the evils and the proposed remedies, before it will grapple vigorously with the first and apply steadily the last. This is the only safe path of progress for the friends of educational improvement in Connecticut to follow.

WANT OF INFORMATION AND PLAN FOR OBTAINING IT.

1. The teacher is now required to enter in a book or register, to be provided at the expense of the district, many of the items which should be known by the Legislature respecting all of the schools of the state. Let a register be furnished by the state to each district, as is done in Massachusetts, and then let the teacher be required to keep the same with accuracy, and deposit the book at the end of the term with the clerk of the district, as a condition of his drawing his compensation. This will be the original and authentic source of information to parents, the district, and the school officers of the society. From such registers the return from the school society could be readily filled out, even if the schools were not in session.

2. The district committee should be required to fill out from his personal knowledge, and from the register of the teacher, a return to the committee or the visitors of the society, for each term of schooling, in matter and form as may be furnished by this department;—and the making of this return according to law, should be the condition of drawing the school money from the society or town.

3. The visitors, as is now required by law, should make out a report, from their own knowledge, and from the returns of the district committee, respecting all the schools in the society, and communicate the same in a printed form to the society; a copy of which should be attached to the certificate now required of the committee of the society as a condition on which the order for public money is drawn on the treasury of the State.

4. From these and other sources of information, the Superintendent should be required to make out a printed report, a copy of which should be forwarded, not only to the members of the Legislature, but to each school district and society, previous to the May session of the General Assembly, in each year.

The success of the whole plan, as to accuracy and uniformity, will depend on the state furnishing blanks, both for the register and returns, and in making the payments of the dividends of the School Fund depend on the proper performance of this duty required by law.

So far as I am permitted to act as Superintendent of Common Schools, my first and main object will be to ascertain the condition of the schools in every district and society in the State, and the actual working of existing laws for their organization and administration, as the only basis of any safe legislative, or local action on the subject. This I propose to do,

1. By personal inspection and inquiry.

2. By the official reports of school visitors now required by law to be made annually to the school society, and this office.

3. By circulars addressed to teachers, school officers, and individuals known to be interested in the improvement of the schools.

4. By employing individuals to visit societies and districts from which no returns can be obtained through the teachers and officers of the same.

5. By inviting a full and free statement of facts relating to school-houses, the attendance of children at school, text-books, teachers and supervision—in the public meetings which may be held in different parts of the State.

PUBLIC AND PARENTAL APATHY, AND PLANS FOR REMOVING.

The most prominent fact which presents itself even to a casual observer, and forces itself every where on the close inquirer into the practical working of our school system, is the wide-spread and paralizing apathy which pervades the public mind in the school district, society and town, as to the condition and improvement of the common schools.

This is shown by the dilapidated and forlorn condition of the school-houses, by the thin attendance of parents and voters at school meetings, except at those which are called to build or repair school-houses, or introduce improvements which may require an expenditure of money, and then, by the numerous attendance, not unfrequently of those who will be most benefited by these improvements, to vote down, or postpone such unwelcome propositions,—by the large number of children which are withdrawn from the common schools, and placed in private schools of different grades,—by the irregular attendance even of those who depend on the district school for their education,—by the almost entire absence of parental visitation to the schools, by the employment of unqualified teachers,—by the sleepy and merely formal supervision to which they are subjected, and by the neglect to hold school-officers to the same responsibility which is exacted of other public officers. The testimony on this point by our own teachers and school-officers from every section of the State, is concurrent and overwhelming.

The system will continue to move on in feeble and irregular action until this apathy can be broken up, and the right state of feeling awakened in its place. To accomplish this, the living voice and the public press, in every appropriate form, must be invoked and enlisted, until the claims of the ninety thousand children of the State to a useful education shall no longer be overlooked.

Among the means and agencies to which resort will be had, the following may be specified:

1. By public lectures,

As the most direct and efficient agency in rousing public attention, and disseminating information. Arrangements will be made for holding at least one public meeting in every school society, and large neighborhood, and, should I be able to enlist the necessary coöperation, possibly in every district, for familiar and practical addresses and discussions on topics connected with the existing state and improvement of the schools in respect to organization, administration, classification, instruction and discipline. These meetings will not only be open to all who may be disposed to attend, but the greatest latitude of discussion will be allowed to any citizen of the State to present his own views on any of the topics discussed.

2. By the public press.

An effort will be made to enlist the conductors of the various newspapers published or circulated in the State, to appropriate a larger portion of their columns than is now done, to suitable articles on schools and education.

3. By the publication of a series of Essays or Tracts, in which the most important topics shall be freely and thoroughly discussed. In this series of essays it is proposed to discuss certain subjects with more fullness and thoroughness than would be allowable in the columns of a newspaper, or even in a regular report from this department. The following are among the subjects for the elucidation of which the material is in part already gathered.

1. *The history and state of the legislation of Connecticut, respecting common schools, with a digest of the most important features in the school systems of other States and countries.*

It is proposed in this document to show in what particulars we have departed from the original policy and practice of the State in what way we can make our existing provisions for education more efficient, and in what respects we may profit by the experience of other States and countries.

2. *An account of the common schools, and other means of popular education, such as libraries, lectures, &c., in every school society in the State.*

After all the efforts which have been made during the past twelve years, there has never been the material collected, from which the condition of the common schools in respect to the territorial extent and population of the several districts, the number of children of the proper school age, and the attendance of the same at school, the length of time the schools were taught, the condition of the school-houses, as to location, yard, size, repairs, ventilation, warmth, seats, apparatus and appendages, the classification and proficiency of the scholars, the studies and text-books, the teachers, their age, education, experience, methods of instruction and government, compensation, success and supervision, the manifestations of parental and public interest, and the cost of supporting the schools, and sources from which the annual expenses are met—in these and other particulars, could be presented for every school society in a single document. Such a document would be, in many respects, highly creditable to the State, and would enable every society and district to judge not only of its actual, but of its relative condition, as compared with other societies and districts. To give greater value to this document, I propose to institute a comparison, so far as published official documents will enable me to do so, between the condition of our schools, and those of the neighboring States of Rhode Island, Massachusetts and New York, in towns and districts having the same population and wealth.

3. *Practical hints for the construction and internal arrangements of school-houses.*

Public attention is already aroused in many districts, to the evils and inconveniences of the old, dilapidated and unventilated structures now occupied by the schools, and the relations which a good school-house bears to a good school, and it is proposed to aid the efforts which may be put forth in such districts by circulating a pamphlet, in which practical hints and approved plans for struc-

tures of this kind shall be set forth, and builders and committees be referred to such buildings as have been recently erected in this and other States, which can be safely designated as models.

4. *Attendance and classification of children at school.*

In this pamphlet, the various methods which have been found effective in securing the punctual and regular attendance of children of a proper school age at school, will be presented, and the general principles on which the schools of a district, society, or town should be classified will be discussed.

5. *System of common schools for cities and large villages.*

The object of this document will be to exhibit the present condition of the common schools in the cities and large villages of Connecticut, in contrast with the condition of the same class of schools in cities and villages of the same population and wealth in other parts of New England, and at the same time to point out the way in which our own can be immediately and economically improved.

6. *The State Normal School.*

To present an account of the organization and course of instruction of our State Normal School, with the history of the Normal School or Teachers' Seminary in the various States and countries where it has been established, with an account of the course of instruction pursued in one or more of the best schools of this class, in each country and State where they are in successful operation, will be the object of this pamphlet. It will also contain notices of Teachers' Institutes, Teachers' Associations, Books on the Theory and Practice of Teaching, and all the ordinary agencies by which good teachers are educated, trained and improved. To make this document particularly useful to teachers and all others who would acquaint themselves with the best thoughts of the best writers on education, it will contain an index to the most important topics connected with the organization, classification, instruction and discipline of schools, discussed in the books whose titles are published.

7. *Text-Books and Apparatus.*

To aid teachers, school committees, and parents generally, in the selection of text-books, a catalogue of the best books, or at least of the books which have an established reputation among good teachers and educators, will be published, with the name and place of the publishers, and the price at which the books can be purchased. A list of such apparatus as will be found indispensable and useful in each grade of school, will also be published, together with the price of each article.

8. *Supervision of schools.*

In this document the duties of the several officers created or recognized in our laws in reference to the education of children and the management of the common schools will be reviewed, with suggestions for making the discharge of their duties more simple, effective, and harmonious. I shall aim in particular, to show how the examination of candidates for teaching can be so conducted as to secure a common standard of qualification in teachers of the same class of school in different towns—how an uniformity of text-books in the schools of the same and adjoining societies can be introduced—and how the visitation of schools can be so conducted as to give vigor and life to the operations of the schools and the system.

9. *Support of schools.*

An attempt will be made in this pamphlet to exhibit the amount of money necessary to carry out a system of common schools in the state, the manner in which the same shall be raised, the principles on which it should be distributed, and the check which must be applied to prevent its misapplication, and ascertain the result of its expenditure. Some tables will be annexed to show the sums now raised for the support of public instruction in different States and countries, and the modes of appropriating the same.

10. *Parental and public interest.*

The necessity of a general, intelligent, active and constant interest on the part of parents and the whole community, in the school and the education of

children, will be pointed out in this document, as well as the means and modes by which this interest can be created and maintained. As soon as parents begin to read, listen, think, talk and act on the subject of schools as they do about making money, or carrying an election, or propagating a creed, there will be less occasion of complaint of dilapidated school-houses, poor teachers and sleepy supervision; then the people will demand better, and will have them.

ORGANIC CHANGE IN THE SYSTEM.

The present territorial organization of our school system, with the existing distribution of powers and duties among towns, school societies and school districts, relative to the education of children, is a departure from the original policy of Connecticut, which has not been followed by any resulting benefit, but is attended with many, great, and peculiar disadvantages.

The whole area of the state is divided into one hundred and forty-five towns—two hundred and seventeen school societies, some of which are co-extensive with the limits of the town whose name they bear, but more frequently embracing only portions of a town, and sometimes parts of two or more towns,—and sixteen hundred and fifty school districts, each containing portions of a school society. These several towns, societies, and districts, are corporations, charged with portions of that responsibility which the laws of the state impose upon every parent and guardian of children, to see that every child is "properly educated and brought up to some honest and lawful calling or employment."

The code of 1650—which in this respect only gave the form of legal requirement to what had already become the practice of parents in the several towns—provides that "for as much as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth, the selectmen of every town shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to teach by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue and the capital laws of this colony, upon the penalty of twenty shillings therein." To enable parents to give this education, and to the end "that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers in church and commonwealth," it is made the duty of every town having fifty householders, to appoint a teacher whose wages shall be paid, either by the parents, or masters of the children, or by the inhabitants in general by the way of supply or general appropriation; and it is further made the duty of every town having one hundred families, to set up a "grammar school"—the masters of which must be able "to instruct youths for the university," under the penalty of five pounds for every year's neglect. In 1690, it being found that many families had allowed young "barbarians" to grow up in their midst, who could not "read the Holy Word of God, and the good laws of the colony," it was ordained by the General Court that "the grand-jurymen in each town do once in the year at at least visit each family they suspect to neglect the education of their children and servants, and return the names of such as they find neglectful to the county courts, there to be fined twenty shillings for each child or servant whose teaching is thus neglected." In 1702, the support of the common schools was made a regular charge upon each town, of forty shillings in every one thousand pounds in the county rates, which was levied and collected like any other tax; and in case any town did not keep up the school or schools for at least six months in the year, the tax was collected and paid into the county treasury as a fine imposed upon such town for its neglect. If the amount raised in the county rate was not sufficient to maintain the school or schools for the period required by law, the deficiency was made up, one-half by the parents of the children, and the other half by an additional tax on the inhabitants of the town generally. In 1714, "the civil authority and selectmen" in every town are constituted "visitors," to inspect the schools at least once each quarter, to inquire into the qualifications of the teachers, and the proficiency of the scholars, and "to give such directions as they shall find needful to make the schools most serviceable to the increase of that knowledge, civility, and religion, which they are designed to promote." These were the wise and far-reaching enactments of the fathers of our commonwealth, and remained the essential features of our school system until within the last half century, and so far as the mode of support is concerned, until 1821; when, by the

most disastrous enactment ever placed on our statute book, the legal obligation to raise either a state, town or society tax for the support of schools ceased, and permission was given to the districts to assess the entire expense over the receipts from its School Fund, on the parents of the scholars.

Under these wise and far-reaching enactments, the school habits of the people of Connecticut were formed, and in these *habits* the "peculiar" excellence of our school system has always resided. It is owing to the falling away of the people from these habits that our school laws, and our schools with more abundant means, and increased facilities of instruction, no longer accomplish the same results, which, according to the testimony of men well informed as to the condition of society at that time, were realized at the beginning of the present century. Then, in every town or society having more than seventy families, a school was taught for eleven months in the year, and in every society having less than seventy families, for at least six months in the year. These schools were the *main reliance of the whole community for the education of children* in the elementary studies. The rich and the poor, the laborer with his hands and the laborer with his head, sent their sons and their daughters to the same school. The property of the whole community was held responsible for the education of all its youth, and the care and support of the school were regarded among the civil and social as well as the parental duties. The grand result was seen in the universal diffusion of elementary education, and in the lively interest which was manifested in all that related to the prosperity and improvement of the school in the town, parish, and district meetings. The good education of children was felt to be of "singular behoof and benefit to the commonwealth"—and the growth of "idle, ignorant, and stubborn youths" was prevented and extirpated as a "barbarism" not to be tolerated in a civilized and Christian land. It is the peculiar glory of Connecticut, and of her school system, that at the beginning of the present century, before her munificent school fund had yielded one dollar of revenue towards the support of the schools, that her people had solved the great problem of our age by educating every child born or residing within its limits, not only to read the holy word of God and the good laws of the state, but to meet the duties of home and neighborhood, and share in the administration of public affairs as a voter, and as eligible to any office.

Every departure from this original territorial organization of our school system, combined with the various changes which have been made in the mode of supporting the schools, has, in my opinion, weakened the efficiency of its administration, and proved a hindrance to the progressive improvement of the schools, both in the quantity and quality of education given in them. These changes were gradually introduced to meet the wants of families, as they spread out beyond the first location of the church, and places of business—first, by the incorporation of ecclesiastical societies for the convenience of public worship; next, by the establishment of schools in such societies, and finally by the division and subdivision of these societies into school districts, with powers and officers distinct from those of the society to which they belong. These changes were consummated by the act of 1798, by which the inhabitants living within the limits of ecclesiastical societies were constituted School Societies, which were clothed with all the powers and duties respecting schools, before appertaining to towns and parishes,—and by an act passed about the same time, empowering school districts to build schoolhouses, and receive and expend the dividends of the school fund and the avails of the school tax. School districts were subsequently authorized to assess the entire expense of the schools over the public money, upon the parents of the children who attend the school.

The law now recognizes the organization and authorities of towns in reference to a compulsory provision for the education and bringing up of "rude, stubborn and unruly" children, who are not properly cared for by their parents or guardians, the supervision of the education and employment of children engaged in factories and manufacturing establishments,—the management of the "Town Deposite Fund," one-half of the annual income of which is appropriated to schools,—the payment of any abatement in a district tax or assessment for any school purpose, of any poor person who is unable to pay the same, in favor of the district in which such persons may reside, and the payment of the sum allowed by law to the acting school visitors of each society for performing the duties of visitation.

School Societies are clothed with all the necessary powers to establish, support and regulate common schools of different grades for the useful education of all children in their respective limits,—including expressly the power to build school-houses, employ teachers, lay taxes, appoint certain committees with enumerated powers, and receive from the town and state all money which may be appropriated by law for the support of common schools. It is optional with each society to subdivide its territory into school districts, or to administer its schools in its corporate capacity, and without any such division. Every society, with a single exception of the City Society of Middletown, is divided into school districts.

School districts are clothed with all the powers granted to School Societies for establishing and conducting schools, subject to certain conditions prescribed in the law, and to such general regulations as the society to which such districts belong, may prescribe. Each district is independent of all others, and practically acknowledges but a loose dependence on either the School Society or the State. The schools in these districts, with the exception of those in Middletown, and the High School in Hartford, constitute the common schools of Connecticut.

Such is a brief outline of the present organization of our common schools. Its practical operation multiplies the number of corporate bodies and officers much beyond the demands or the convenience of the people. All that is now done by one hundred and forty-five towns, two hundred and seventeen societies, and sixteen hundred and fifty districts, requiring upwards of two thousand district meetings, every year, could be better done at the regular or special meeting of the inhabitants of the several towns. All the financial business of the schools could be promptly and economically done by the same officers who now manage the finances of the several towns—thereby dispensing with the appointment of at least three thousand officers for this purpose. The general supervision of all the schools, with all that relates to school-houses, the examination and employment of teachers, the regulation of studies, books and classification of schools and scholars, could be done with far more thoroughness, system and uniformity by one committee for each town, so constituted as to have one member elected for each neighborhood, or section where a school was located. The appointment of such a committee would dispense with at least four thousand persons who now accept their offices with reluctance, and discharge their duties without previous preparation, and in a majority of instances in a very imperfect manner.

The school societies not being obliged or expected to transact any business except to appoint officers, and take care of the burying grounds, (which is literally "the dead taking care of the dead,") as no school-houses are to be built, or teachers employed, or taxes to be laid for any purpose, the annual meeting, which in most societies is the only meeting held in the year, is always thinly attended. During the past year, in several of the largest societies, which send, on an average, three hundred voters to a town meeting, not ten persons were present, and of these, a majority were school officers. In many instances which have come to my knowledge, there were just enough present to officer the meeting and bring forward the business. At these meetings the acting school visitors are required by law to present a report as to their own doings and the condition and improvement of the schools; but to what purpose? The report is not read, or if read, there are neither teachers or parents or district officers present to profit by its exposure of evils, or suggestions of improvement. In only three instances was a document of this kind printed for circulation in the society or among the districts for whose benefit it was prepared. This want of knowledge as to the condition of the schools, this severance of the school interest from all the other great interests of the town, combined with our mode of supporting the same, has led to that deep and wide-spread apathy which has been before referred to as the principal hindrance to educational improvement. The state of things would be far different if the entire management of the schools devolved on the towns, and questions affecting their improvement could come up for discussion at the regular town meeting. Then, at least, there would be an audience, and the advocates for better houses and better teachers would make themselves heard and felt. If appropriations were needed to increase the number or prolong the term of the schools, or furnish the poor children with books, there would be far less difficulty than now in obtaining a grant, by simply moving an addition to the regular town tax. Avarice, ignorance, indifference and aristocratic pretentions would, as now,

be opposed to all liberal propositions, but these motives would be likely to be rebuked, exposed and over-ruled on a full hearing of the merits of the case.

The present distribution of powers and duties among school societies and districts respecting the presentation, examination and employment, supervision, dismission and payment of teachers, leads to a complexity, and not unfrequently a conflict of jurisdiction, that defeats the great objects of the law, which, as I understand, are to bring good teachers and only good teachers, into the schools,—and to withhold the public money from all who, upon examination or trial, are not found to be such. In a majority of districts, the persons who employ teachers have not the leisure, practical knowledge and opportunity to select the best. They take the first candidate who applies,—in ninety-nine instances in one hundred, this candidate will become the teacher of the school, even though the school visitors do not approve of his qualifications. The supervisory power lodged in the visitors of the society, is rendered nugatory in consequence of the many independent and lateral agencies through which it must act, to reach the evil it would prevent or cure. Even the visitation of the schools is not performed at times and in ways to do much good, from the varying seasons of the year in which schools open and close and the want of proper notice and coöperation by the district committee.

From the process of dividing and subdividing the territory of a town first into societies, and then into districts, the most obvious and disastrous inequality in the education of children, in the same towns, has resulted. The districts differ from each other in territorial extent, the number, intelligence, wealth and educational interest of the inhabitants, the qualifications of teachers employed, the school-house and apparatus provided and the supervision of the local committee. These elements and influences determine primarily the character of a school. If a child belongs to a populous district, or in a small one where the energy and liberality of a few individuals make up for its weakness in numbers and pecuniary means, he can enjoy the instruction of a well qualified teacher for at least ten months in the year, during his whole school life; and thus attain the highest advantages, provided by our law. But if he resides in a small district, he can attend a district school from four to five months in the year kept annually in a small, dilapidated and inconvenient school-house, and taught by a cheap, and generally an incompetent teacher. There are at least five hundred districts in the state, and one or more in every school society, in which the children are doomed to an inferior and imperfect education, and which are so many "estates in expectancy,"—so many nurseries for ignorant and inexperienced teachers. This inequality can be partially remedied by a thorough revision of districts; and then by distributing one-half of the public money among them, according to the average attendance in each,—and the other half by some rule which will secure an equality of school privileges to all of the children of the same society or town.

But the most thorough and general improvement in all of the schools of a society or town—the greatest equality of school privileges to all the children of the small as well as the large districts, can be effected by an abandonment of the district system and the establishment of schools of different grades, according to the age and attainments of the pupils, in different sections of the same society or town, under the charge of a committee so constituted as to represent the wants of each section.

MODE AND AMOUNT OF APPROPRIATIONS FOR SCHOOLS.

Without the means, at once certain and sufficient, to provide good school-houses, good books, good teachers, and good supervision, for a sufficient number of schools, there can not be the highest degree of efficiency in any school law, however perfect in other respects. In my opinion it is both just and expedient to provide liberally, but not exclusively, by State endowment, for the support of public instruction. As education is a want not felt by those who need it most, for themselves or their children,—as it is a duty which avarice and a short-sighted self-interest may disregard,—as it is a right which is inherent in every child, but which the child can not enforce, and as it is an interest, both public and individual, which can not safely be neglected, it is unwise and unjust to leave it to the sense of parental duty, or the unequal and insufficient resources which individuals, and local authorities, under the stimulus of ordinary

all, except through the medium of taxation. What, then, are the advantages which may reasonably be anticipated from the establishment of a Public High School, properly organized, instructed, and supervised?

First. Every thing which is now done in the several district schools, and schools of lower grade, can be better done, and in a shorter time, because the teachers will be relieved from the necessity of devoting the time and attention now required by few of the older and more advanced pupils, and can bestow all their time and attention upon the preparatory studies and younger children. These studies will be taught in methods suited to the age and attainments of the pupils. A right beginning can thus be made in the lower schools, in giving a thorough practical knowledge of elementary principles, and in the formation of correct mental and moral habits, which are indispensable to all sound education. All this will be done under the additional stimulus of being early and thoroughly fitted for the High School.

Second. A High School will give completeness to the system of public instruction which may be in operation. It will make suitable provision for the older and more advanced pupils of both sexes, and will admit of the methods of instruction and discipline which cannot be profitably introduced into the schools below. The lower grade of schools—those which are established for young children,—require a large use of oral and simultaneous methods, and a frequent change of place and position on the part of the pupils. The higher branches, especially all mathematical subjects, require patient application and habits of abstraction on the part of the older pupils, which can with difficulty, if at all, be attained by many pupils amid a multiplicity of distracting exercises, movements, and sounds. The recitations of this class of pupils, to be profitable and satisfactory, must be conducted in a manner which requires time, discussion, and explanation, and the undivided attention both of pupils and teacher. The course of instruction provided in the High School will be equal in extent and value to that which may be given in any private school, academy, or female seminary in the place, and which is now virtually denied to the great mass of the children by the burdensome charge of tuition.

As has been already implied, the advantages of a High School should not be confined to the male sex. The great influence of the female sex, as daughters, sisters, wives, mothers, companions, and teachers, in determining the manners, morals, and intelligence of the whole community, leaves no room to question the necessity of providing for the girls the best means of intellectual and moral culture. The course of instruction should embrace the first principles of natural and mechanical philosophy, by which inventive genius and practical skill in the useful arts can be fostered; such studies as navigation, book-keeping, surveying, botany, chemistry, and kindred studies, which are directly connected with success in the varied departments of domestic and inland trade, with foreign commerce, with gardening, agriculture, the manufacturing and domestic arts;

such studies as astronomy, physiology, the history of our own state and nation, the principles of our state and national constitutions, political economy, and moral science; in fine, such a course of study as is now given in more than fifty towns and cities in New England, and which shall prepare every young man, whose parents may desire it, for business, or for college, and give to every young woman a well disciplined mind, high moral aims, refined tastes, gentle and graceful manners, practical views of her own duties, and those resources of health, thought, conversation, and occupation, which bless alike the highest and lowest station in life. When such a course is provided and carried out, the true idea of the High School will be realized.

Third. It will equalize the opportunities of a good education, and exert a happy, social influence throughout the whole community from which it gathers its scholars. From the want of a public school of this character, the children of such families as rely exclusively on the district school are isolated, and are condemned to an inferior education, both in quality and quantity; they are cut off from the stimulus and sympathy which the mingling of children of the same age from different parts of the same community would impart. The benefits, direct and indirect, which will result to the country districts, or poor families who live in the outskirts of the city, from the establishment of a school of this class, cannot easily be overestimated. The number of young men and young women who will receive a thorough education, qualifying them for business, and to be teachers, will increase from year to year; and the number who will press up to the front ranks of scholarship in the school, bearing away the palm of excellence by the vigor of sound minds in sound bodies, of minds and bodies made vigorous by long walks and muscular labor in the open air, will be greater in proportion to their number than from the city districts. It will do both classes good, the children of the city, and the children of the country districts, to measure themselves intellectually in the same fields of study, and to subject the peculiarities of their respective manners, the roughness and awkwardness sometimes characteristic of the one, and the artificiality and flippancy of the other, to the harmonizing influence of reciprocal action and reaction. The isolation and estrangement which now divide and subdivide the community into country and city clans, which, if not hostile, are strangers to each other, will give place to the frequent intercourse and esteem of individual and family friendship, commenced in the school-room, and on the play-ground of the school. The school will thus become a bond of union, a channel of sympathy, a spring-head of healthy influence, and stimulus to the whole commnnity.

Fourth. The privileges of a good school will be brought within the reach of all classes of the community, and will actually be enjoyed by children of the same age from families of the most diverse circumstances as to wealth, education, and occupation. Side by side in the same recitations, heart and hand in the same sports, pressing up together to the same high attainments in knowledge and character, will be found the children of the rich and poor, the more and the

and had every mother the requisite leisure, taste, and ability to superintend the proper training of the feelings, manners, language, and opening faculties of the young, their early school attendance would not be an object of great importance. But whatever may be the fact in a few homes, and with few mothers, there can be no doubt, that in reference to many homes, so unfavorable are many surrounding circumstances,—so numerous are the temptations in the street, from the example and teaching of low-bred idleness,—so incessant are the demands on the time and attention of the mother of a family, that it is safe to say, that with the large majority of children, their school attendance should commence when they are five years old. In the densely populated sections of large cities, and in all manufacturing villages, provision should be made for the attendance and appropriate care and instruction of children, two and three years younger. No one at all familiar with the deficient household arrangements and deranged machinery of domestic life, of the extreme poor, and ignorant, to say nothing of the intemperate,—of the examples of rude manners, impure and profane language, and all the vicious habits of low-bred idleness, which abound in certain sections of all populous districts—can doubt, that it is better for children to be removed as early and as long as possible from such scenes and such examples, and placed in an infant or primary school, under the care and instruction of a kind, affectionate and skillful female teacher.

The primary object in securing the early school attendance of children, is not so much their intellectual culture, as the regulation of the feelings and dispositions, the extirpation of vicious propensities, the pre-occupation of the wilderness of the young heart with the seeds and germs of moral beauty, and the formation of a lovely and virtuous character by the habitual practice of cleanliness, delicacy, refinement, good temper, gentleness, kindness, justice, and truth. The failure of much of our best school education in reference to moral character, is to be attributed to the pre-occupation of the ground by idle, vicious, and immoral habits, acquired at home and in the street before the precepts, example, and training of the school commenced.

Until children are ten or twelve years of age, they should be subjected to a regular, systematic, and efficient school training through the year, with such vacations as the health and recreation of the teacher may require. Except during the very hot days of summer, and the most inclement weather in winter, and the established or occasional holidays, children should never require vacations on their own account. The daily exercises of the school should not in any case overtask the brain, or weary the physical strength, beyond the power of the play-ground and the light slumbers of childhood to restore. They should leave the school, day after day, in the radiant health and buoyant spirits which nature associates with their years, when spent in obedience to her laws.

After the age of ten or twelve, a portion of each year spent in the discharge of domestic duties at home, or in healthy labor in the field, the mill, the counting-room, or the workshop, under the direction and supervision of parents or natural guardians, will prove of more service to the physical training of most children, and the formation of good practical habits of thought, feeling, and action, than if spent over books in the school-room; and especially, if spent in such school-rooms, and under such teachers as are now in too many districts in this and other States provided.

Every child should attend the best school, be it public or private; but other things being equal, a public school of the same grade will be found to be the best school; and if it is the best school, in all the essential features of a school, the social and indirect benefits resulting to the individual and to the community, from the early school association of all the children from the families of the poor and the rich, the more and the less favored in occupation and outward circumstances, are such, that as far as practicable, all the children of a neighborhood should attend the public school. While connected with a school, every scholar should attend regularly and punctually, from the commencement of the term to the close, and during the school hours of each day. If the children of either sex are to be withdrawn early from school, this deprivation should fall on the boys, rather than the girls; for the former can more easily supply the deficiencies of school education by improving the opportunities of self and mutual instruction which their occupation, and access to books, lectures, and the daily in-

tercourse with educated men, afford; and the latter, by improving for a longer period the privilege of good schools, will, in the relations of mothers and teachers, do more to improve and bless society, and determine the civilization of the next and all future generations, than the male sex can do, however well educated, without the coöperation of women.

1. Many children of a proper age do not attend any school, public or private, or receive suitable instruction at home during the year.

The whole number thus absent from any regular or systematic means of education, can not be less than twelve thousand. Of this number five thousand were under the age of eight years, and two thousand over the age of twelve. It would have been better for the health, manners, and morals of most of those under eight years of age to have been in good primary schools, such as should be engrafted upon the system of public instruction, in every large neighborhood. Of those over twelve years of age, two-thirds at least were girls, and a large proportion of the whole number, both male and female, were employed in the field, the mill, or the workshop, for the pecuniary value of their labor. Many of them have attended school in former years, but so irregularly that their school education does not amount to any useful acquaintance with even the elementary branches of reading, writing, and arithmetic, as ordinarily taught. A portion of this number would have attended the public school of their district, had it not been open for only a few weeks or months, and, during that time, crowded with scholars of every age. The necessities of some families, and the business arrangements of employers, will not allow of the withdrawal of all those employed in the mills at the same time. So if the public school in the agricultural district is open in the summer only, the older boys and girls can not attend; and if in the winter only, the younger children who live at a distance, are virtually excluded. The remedy for this part of the evil, is to keep the public school open throughout the year. For those who can not under any circumstances attend the day school, (although it is to be regretted that they should not attend a good school for even a few months in the year, at a period of life when they would make the most valuable acquisition in knowledge, and master effectually its difficulties,) evening schools should be established. By means of such schools, the defective education of many of the youth of our manufacturing population would be remedied, and their various trades and employments be converted into the most efficient instruments of self-culture.

Although a much larger school attendance, both of children under eight and over twelve years, would undoubtedly be secured by the opening of permanent schools, both for children under eight and ten years, and for those over twelve, still this would not wholly cure the evil, which lies down deep in the cupidity and negligence of parents, and the change which has been wrought in the habits of society by the substitution of the cheaper labor of children and females, for the more expensive labor of able-bodied men. The consciences of parents must be touched,—a public conscience on this subject must be created, a wise forethought, as to the retribution which will one day visit society for the crime of neglected childhood, and the early and extensive withdrawal of females from schools, and their employment in large masses away from home and home occupations, must be awakened among capitalists, patriots, and Christians. We have not yet begun to see the beginning of the end. A large number of the females heretofore employed in mills, have had an early, New England, domestic training, before engaging in their present occupation. But where can those who have spent their lives, from the age of eight or ten to twenty-one, in the routine of a mill or shop, be trained to those intellectual and moral habits, which are essential to the management of a household, however small and humble, and upon which the happiness of every home, however poor, depends?

2. Many children who should, and would under some circumstances, be sent to the public schools, attend exclusively private schools of different grades.

Most of the private schools in this State have their origin in the real or supposed deficiencies of the common schools, and four-fifths of them would disappear in six months, if the public schools were thoroughly organized, and liberally sustained throughout the year. The peculiar views entertained by some parents in reference to the education of children, will always call for the establishment of a few private schools. In these, the accomplishments of education, which

the great mass of society will not care to see provided for in a course of public instruction, can be given; and here, too, those teachers who have new views as to methods of instruction and discipline, which can not be carried out in schools subject to certain general regulations, as public schools must be, will find scope for the exercise of their talents. Improvements in education would be retarded, and the standard of education would be lowered by the utter abandonment of private schools. This view of the necessity and usefulness of private schools, does not preclude my regarding the extent to which they are now patronized by the wealthy and educated families of the State, as at once the evidence of the low condition of the public schools, and the most formidable obstacle in the way of their rapid and permanent improvement. It draws off the means and the parental and public interest which are requisite to make good public schools, and converts them, in some places, avowedly, into schools for the poor. It classifies society at the root, by assorting children according to the wealth, education, and outward circumstances of their parents, into different schools; and educates children of the same neighborhood differently and unequally. These differences of culture, as to manners, morals, and intellectual tastes and habits, begun in childhood, and strengthened by differences in occupation, which are determined mainly by education, open a real chasm between members of the same society, broad and deep, which equal laws and political theories can not close. The only way to prevent the continuance, or at least to diminish the amount of this social and political evil in future, is to do away with its cause—the necessity which now exists for so many private schools, and to equalize the opportunities of education. To accomplish this to the extent which is practicable and desirable, the public schools here, must be made at once cheap and good, by the same or more efficient steps which have made them cheap and good elsewhere.

3. Many children who are enrolled as scholars in public schools, attend for so few months in the year, and will attend for so short a period of their lives, that their school education must necessarily be very limited, superficial and incomplete.

Many children do not commence going to school for the first time until they are six, seven, or eight years of age, and not a few of this number, after attending school two, three, and four months in the year, for three or four years of their lives, leave it for active employment in the field and workshop.

The general standard of attainment with scholars over eight years old, in most of the schools which I have visited, was at least three years below what it should have been, and what it would have been, if the same scholars had commenced going to school when they were five years of age. There are certain school habits, of order, attention, and application, which can be more readily acquired,—certain elementary steps in language, which can be taken more easily by a child before than after they are seven or eight years old. The standard of scholarship in the schools, fell far short, both in quantity and quality, of what it might have been, if the older children of the neighborhood were continued in the winter schools for a few years longer. They leave school just at that period of life when they would see the practical bearings of their studies, and have acquired the vigor of mind requisite to grapple with the real difficulties of science.

4. Many scholars in public schools attend so irregularly from day to day, and with such want of punctuality at the opening of each term, and of each half-day's session, and withdrew prematurely before the close of the term, or of the daily session, that they derived but little benefit from the schools and greatly impaired the usefulness, and lowered the scholarship of the public schools.

The magnitude and diversified forms and relations of the evils here stated—its deep-seatedness in the school habits of society, and the irreparable nature of the injury which it inflicts, can not be overstated, and can with difficulty be appreciated, except by those who have devoted particular attention to the subject.

Except in districts where there is a stated period for each school term to commence, much time is lost to individuals, and the whole school, before a sufficient number of scholars have come together for the purposes of classification. In ninety-six districts, from which returns on this point were received,

comprising in the aggregate 3,800 pupils, less than 1,000 were present during the first week, and more than that number did not join until after the close of the third week of the term. In the same districts, 460 left school three weeks before the term closed. The average length of the school term in these districts, was thirteen weeks. But not only was the nominal length of the school term curtailed in this way, but a portion was clipped, both from the opening and close of every day's session.

In fifty schools, in which these facts were carefully noted, until proper measures were taken to expose and remedy the evil, less than one-tenth of the scholars were in the school-room within five minutes after the hour had arrived for opening the school; less than one-half had come in at the close of twenty minutes; and more than thirty minutes of the morning session was virtually lost to the whole school from delays or disturbances incident to tardiness on the part of a portion of the scholars, with some of whom a want of punctuality had already become habitual. I have seldom visited a school during the first half of the morning session, without witnessing the interruption of the order, attention and exercises of the school, caused by the entrance of some delinquent scholar; and although not to the same extent, the same interruption is repeated during the last half of the afternoon session, by the withdrawal of a larger or smaller number of scholars, on the pretence of business to be done, or distance to be traversed.

But great as are these hindrances and interruptions, and the consequent loss of money, time and privileges to individuals, the school, and the public, they are few and small compared with those which spring from irregularity of attendance. From the want of full and accurate sources of information, in school registers accurately kept for a series of years, the magnitude of this evil can not be expressed in any statistical statement.

The results of my own inquiries and observations in more than one hundred schools, are very unfavorable. In not a single instance, was the number of absentees at the time of my visit, less than one-fourth of the whole number of scholars enrolled; in more than one-half of the schools, it amounted to more than one-third of the whole number, and in the manufacturing villages, it never fell below one-half. Whenever a minute inquiry was instituted, it almost invariably appeared that every scholar had been absent during the term; that a majority, even of those who were most constant in their attendance, were occasionally absent; that about one-third were habitually irregular; and that some who were counted as members of the school, came so seldom that their attendance might be regarded as visits, were it not that such visits prove too serious an annoyance and hindrance, both to scholars and teacher, to be designated by a word, which when used in connection with schools, ought to convey something more frequent and beneficial. I have seldom listened to a class recitation, in which one or more members of the class were not excused from even attempting to recite in their turn, or in which the teacher was not mortified at a halting, blundering answer from every fourth or fifth scholar, because of their having recently joined the school or been frequently absent. I have never been present at an examination or review of the studies of a term, or even of a previous week, in which it was not evident that whole chapters in text-books, where every chapter was a new step in the development of a subject, had never been studied,—that explanations, and even practical illustrations by the teacher, of difficult and important principles had been lost to many scholars, and that even the valuable attainments of some of the best scholars were vitiated, in consequence of occasional or frequent absence, which had been permitted or required by parents or guardians. Nor have I found this evil confined to any particular grade of schools, whether elementary or superior, private or public, although it prevails less in private than in public schools, and in good than in poor schools. The state of the school register, as to attendance, is of itself a pretty sure index of the character of a school.

This irregularity of attendance, including the want of punctuality in commencing and closing the school term, and each half day's session, at the appointed time, prevents the early and systematic classification of a school, or defeats, in a measure, its object, when made. The difference of proficiency in the

same class, between those who are regular in their attendance, and prepared by previous study for perfect recitations, and to comprehend the explanations of teachers, and those who are not thus regular and prepared, becomes as great as between members of different classes. The spirit of sympathy which works so powerfully and so happily in a large class, when all are pressing forward together in pursuit of a common object, is lost. The steady advance of the whole is arrested by the halting, lagging recitations of every third or fourth member, who missed a previous lesson, or a still more important explanation by the teacher. A new class must be formed, or the same lesson must be assigned for a second and third time; the same explanation must be repeated; the laggards fall still further in the rear, and the spirit of the whole class is broken.

The individual who is thus irregular, loses that systematic training of the several faculties of his mind which a regular course of school instruction should be framed to impart. There can be no continuity in the daily process,—each faculty can not be exercised in its appropriate study, pursued in its proper order, where there is a loss of every third or fourth recitation. He can not make himself thoroughly master of any subject, when his knowledge of principles, as presented in text-books, and explained by the teacher, is imperfect, in consequence of chasms in lessons, and gaps in recitations. Degraded gradually from his first position, until he finds himself dragging at the heels of his class,—visited with the displeasure and punishment of the teacher, for his repeated failures, he loses that delicacy of feeling,—that sensitiveness to the good opinion of his associates and teacher, which is the motive to much noble conduct and effort in the young, and finally becomes so reckless and hardened to reproof and shame, that he can stand up unabashed, and confess his ignorance, and it may be, glory in it. A disgust to study and the school follows this loss of self-respect; habits of truancy are acquired, and by and by he is turned out upon society, a pest and a burden,—a prepared victim of idleness, vice and crime. The consequences of irregular and unseasonable attendance, are not always so disastrous, but the business of daily life is constantly arrested and deranged by the bad habits of mental and moral discipline, which it helped to form.

To the teacher, this practice is a source of much additional labor, perplexity, and disappointment. His best plans for economizing his time and efforts, by acting on masses of scholars, instead of individuals, are defeated. The discipline, attention, and order of exercises for the whole school are disturbed, by late attendance. His interest in the daily recitations of his classes, is dampened by the number who are absent or who are not properly prepared; and at the close of the term, and especially if there is a public examination, he is mortified that after all his efforts, he is obliged to apologize for the large number of scholars who have absented themselves from the consciousness of their own deficiencies, and for the repeated failures in those who are present. The committee is disappointed, and parents are disposed to complain; and not unfrequently the loudest complaints come from parents who tolerated, even if they did not require, the occasional and frequent absence of their children, whose irregularity, in various ways, has occasioned all the disappointment.

To the community, as a district, town, and State, this irregular school attendance is a loss, great and irreparable, in every aspect in which it can be viewed. It is a loss or a forfeiture of money, of time, of precious privileges, and above all, of that general virtue and intelligence, which is at once the wealth, security, and glory of a State. School-houses have been built and furnished at a large aggregate cost, and the schools are maintained at an annual expense of not less than two hundred thousand dollars; and yet one-third of this sum is practically thrown away, and with it a proportionate waste of the precious opportunities of early life. Were the school districts and children of a particular section of the State, to be visited exclusively with this loss, a remonstrance, loud and earnest enough to be heard and heeded, would come up from every tax-payer and parent, against the continuance of such bad financiering, and the curse of such a withering, intellectual and moral blight. But the loss of money,—of the privileges of the school, and of the seed time of so many children, is as great and as real, although spread through every school district, and impairing and darkening in advance the aggregate intelligence and virtue of the whole people.

To remedy a state of things, so far removed from the true idea of school at-

tendance,—so adverse to the successful operation of a system of public instruction, and so inwrought into the school habits of society, must be the work of time and of many agencies. Measures must be taken to ascertain and make known the extent of the evil,—its diversified forms and influences,—the causes which produce or aggravate it, and the remedies which have proved elsewhere successful in removing or diminishing it. All the authorities and interests recognized in the organization and administration of the school system, must be enlisted in securing a proper school attendance, without which liberal appropriations, school-houses, teachers, and supervision will fail in making public schools universal blessings.

The State can do something, and prepare the way for still more direct and efficient action on the subject, in the several towns and districts. The school law should provide that the public schools shall be maintained for at least eight months in the year;—that a register of the daily attendance of every scholar in any public school, shall be kept by the teacher;—that the money appropriated by the State, shall be distributed among the school districts, according to the average daily attendance of scholars in each; and that school committees shall make all necessary regulations respecting the admission and attendance of pupils, and submit an annual report on the condition and improvement of the schools, in which so important a feature as school attendance must necessarily be discussed.

If the several towns or school societies will act out to the full circumference of the power and duty with which they are or should be clothed, in respect to this and other matters relating to public schools, the evils of irregular and unseasonable attendance can be immediately and largely diminished. They can direct, as now, that a census of all the children between the ages of three and fifteen or sixteen years, shall be taken annually, including the name and age of each person, and the name, occupation, and residence of the parents and guardians. Such a census will indicate the school wants of the town, and will be useful in determining the arrangement of school districts,—the location and size of school-houses,—the grade of school and kind of teachers required, and the proper distribution of the school money of the town. They can make provision for a sufficient number of schools, of different grades, so as to hold out sufficient inducement for the attendance of the young, as well as the oldest children. They can determine that the schools shall be open both in the summer and winter, so as to allow of the attendance of those who could not attend, if there was but one session in the year. They can increase the inducement to punctual attendance, by offering a premium to be divided among the two or three districts which shall secure the largest average attendance for a specified number of months in the year. They can appoint to the office of school committee, persons of experience, intelligence, and interest in the subject, and sustain them in adopting and enforcing such regulations as they may think necessary to secure good school-houses, well-qualified teachers, and a large and punctual school attendance, in the several districts.

School districts can coöperate in this work. They can, in many instances, continue the school through the year, and in all cases vote to have two sessions in the course of the year. They can provide in all cases, healthy and attractive school-houses, so that children need not be necessarily detained from school by sickness, caused by being immersed in an unventilated and overheated atmosphere, or acquire a distaste to study and the school, in consequence of these being associated only with aching bones and other discomforts of the school-room. They can employ none but well-qualified teachers—and no teacher is well-qualified for a district school who can not attach children to himself and the school, and interest them in their studies. They can establish a small rate of tuition, payable in advance, and thus bring to bear on parents the motive for continuing their children regularly at school, which operates so happily in most private schools. Should this expedient be adopted, for the purpose of increasing the school funds of the district, and interesting parents in the school, it should be so small as to be within reach of all, and payment should be required in advance for the whole term. They can have public meetings for the consideration of topics relating to the condition and improvement of the schools, and a public examination at the close of each school term, at which the register

of attendance can be read. They can sustain the school committee of the town, and the teacher of the school, in carrying out the regulations which may have been adopted by the proper authority.

Among the subjects which should be embraced in a system of town and district regulations, are the following:

1. The period of the year when the schools shall be open. This can not be safely left to the action of school districts, for the children of a large minority are in this way frequently deprived of the privileges of a public school. The convenience of all will be consulted by a school term in summer, and another in winter.

2. A regular time for the admission of pupils, such as the first week of the term; and the first Monday of every month, on the written permission of the district committee, and at no other time.

The arrangements of the teacher must be made in reference to those who are present, and he ought to know what the classification of his school, the length, and order of each exercise will be, for at least the month in advance, if he is to economize his time and labor.

3. A regular time for beginning the exercises of the school in the morning and afternoon, and the exclusion for the half-day, of any scholar who is not in the school-room at the appointed time, or, if this should be thought too strict, admission might be given on the written or personal application of the parent in behalf of the pupil.

It will be hard for a scholar who is five or ten minutes behind the time, to find the door closed, but it is harder still for the teacher to be annoyed, and the attention of the whole school, and the exercise of a class disturbed at frequent intervals, during the first half of each session, by the late entrance of such tardy scholars. Investigation has shown that most cases of tardiness arise out of neglect, rather than inability to leave home in season, or from the habit of loitering by the way. Experience has proved that where there is a certainty of the doors being closed at an appointed hour, that parents will shape their household arrangements, and scholars will perform their accustomed duties, so as to reach the school in season. This rule has operated well wherever it has been tried, and as might have been anticipated, the cases of exclusion are more frequent among children who live near, than those who live most remote from the school. In the winter season, the exercises might be opened fifteen minutes later.

4. A forfeiture of the privileges of the school for the next school month or term, to follow a specified number of absences (as for instance, five half-days,) from school, in four successive weeks, except for personal sickness, or sickness or death in the family. The dismissal of a scholar during school hours, by the request of parents or guardians, should be regarded as an absence for the half-day.

This rule will be readily acquiesced in by parents, when they shall see the necessity which calls for its adoption, and be made acquainted with its beneficial operation on the school; and in all cases, they should be informed and interested, so as to extend their coöperation. They must be made to understand what is meant by the proper school attendance of children, and the waste of time, money and precious privileges involved in even their necessary absence from school, during a certain period of their lives. They must be made to see that even a short period of each year devoted to steady, unbroken attendance, in which not a day or an hour is lost but from extreme necessity, is worth more to a child's mind, habits and education, than whole years of nominal connection with a school, interrupted by frequent absences. To secure the advantages of this punctual, and assiduous attendance, they must see the necessity of subordinating their household arrangements, and their own business and convenience, to some extent, to the hours of the school, and in inclement weather and bad state of the roads, of assisting their children in getting to school. They must see the irreparable wrong done to their own children, by encouraging a growing distaste to study and the school, by allowing their school attendance to depend on whim and caprice, or some trifling service they may render about home. They must see the flagrant injustice which is done to those children who are regular and diligent scholars, by having their recitations interrupted—their

progress arrested, and more than a proper share of the teacher's attention appropriated by scholars who are habitually late and irregular. They must understand that a public school, like every other public institution, must be subject to certain regulations for its proper management, and that no individual can claim his share in its privileges except as subject to these regulations, and under no circumstances so as to deprive others of their equal rights in the same.

5. A register or record of attendance, in which the teacher shall enter the name, age, studies, date of entrance, and each half-day's absence, of each pupil, together with the name of the parent, or guardian.

To secure uniformity in the mode of carrying out these and the following regulations, and to abridge as far as possible the labor of the teacher in both, books properly prepared, and large enough to last for several years, with minute directions for their use, should be furnished to each district, by the Superintendent of Common Schools, at the expense of the State. Teachers can avail themselves in this and in some other departments of discipline and general management, of the services of the older pupils.

6. A class record, in which the teacher shall enter a classification of his school, according to the attainments of his scholars in the several studies pursued—the presence or absence of each member of the class at recitations, and the character of each recitation made; and every scholar should be required to prepare and recite out of school hours any lesson recited by his class during his absence.

7. A weekly or monthly report to parents, containing a summary for the week or month previous, of the registers of attendance and recitation, to which might be added a column for behavior.

It would be still better if parents could be informed on the same half-day, or day, of the absence of their children. This would be an effectual check on truancy. This information could be given by pupils living in the same neighborhood, personally, or by leaving a note at the home of the absentees.

8. The establishment of certain holidays on which all the schools may be dismissed, and on no other days, except by written permission of the proper committee.

These, and similar regulations, modified to suit the peculiar circumstances of each town, with exceptions in favor of districts, where peculiarities of occupation or other causes, may render a compliance with them impossible, will help to remove one of the greatest impediments to the progress of public schools. But independent of these regulations, or in coöperation with them, very much may be done by teachers. They can from time to time, by explaining the evils of irregular and unseasonable attendance, to individuals, classes, and the whole school, create a public opinion in favor of punctual and regular attendance. They can graduate the relative standing of scholars, to some extent, in reference to attendance. They can be punctual themselves, and by a strict adherence to the rules of the school, commencing at the appointed time, and never detaining the classes, without special reasons stated at the time, and if possible, without their willing acquiescence, beyond the hour for dismission. They can always be present before the hour for opening the schools, to see the room is swept, the fires made, and all things in order for the day's work. They can introduce from time to time, at or before the time for commencing the regular exercises, some new study or exercise, which the pupils will feel it a privilege to pursue, or share in, such as music, drawing, experiments in natural science, &c., and which they can pursue or see only by being punctual. They can early establish relations of confidence, affection and respect between themselves and their pupils, and make the school-room the home of good feeling, cheerfulness and happiness to all—the place to which they will be drawn by the ties of affection, and not avoided as a house of confinement and correction. They can keep parents constantly advised of the attendance and progress of their children, and in every possible way cultivate their acquaintance, and secure their coöperation. The earlier a right state of feeling between parents and teachers can be established—the earlier the home and the school can be brought into their natural alliance in the promotion of a common object, the better. It is

only when parents and teachers,—the home and the school perform their separate and appropriate functions with such intelligence and vigor, that the good commenced by the one, is continued and completed by the other, and the errors or deficiencies of either are mutually corrected and supplied, that the culture of the heart, the development and strengthening of the mental faculties, the systematic training of virtuous and useful habits, of the children of the community, can be completely attained.

Even when all these expedients and agencies have been resorted to, so long as there are ignorant, neglected, intemperate and vicious parents, or orphan children uncared for by the wealthy and benevolent, there will be tardy, irregular, and truant scholars, or children who will not be found connected at all with any school, and yet have no regular employment. Accustomed as many such children have been from infancy to sights and sounds of open and abandoned profligacy, trained to an utter want of self-respect, and the decencies and proprieties of life, as exhibited in dress, person, manners and language, strangers to those motives of self-improvement which spring from a sense of social, moral and religious obligation, their regeneration involves the harmonious coöperation of earnest philanthropy, missionary enterprise, and sanctified wisdom. The districts of all our large cities where this class of children are found, are the appropriate field of home missions, of inobtrusive personal effort and charity, and of systematized plans of local benevolence, embracing friendly intercourse with parents, an affectionate interest in the young, the gathering of the latter into week-day, infant, and primary schools, and schools where the use of the needle, and other forms of labor appropriate to the sex and age of the pupils can be given, the gathering of both old and young into Sabbath schools, and worshipping assemblies, the circulation of books and tracts, other than of a strictly religious character, the encouragement of cheap, innocent and humanizing games, sports and festivities, the obtaining employment for adults who may need it, and procuring situations as apprentices, clerks, &c., for such young persons as may be qualified by age, capacity and character. By individual efforts and the combined efforts of many, working in these and other ways, from year to year, these moral jungles can be broken up—these infected districts can be purified—these waste places of society can be reclaimed, and many abodes of penury, ignorance and vice can be converted by education, economy and industry, into homes of comfort, peace and joy.

These views are not the speculations of a dreaming philanthropy, but have been realized again and again, in some of the worst districts of the large cities of England and Scotland, amidst difficulties, discouragements, and obstacles, far greater and far more formidable than exist as yet in any part of our country. The good results which have already followed the efforts of Sunday Schools, city missions, and evening classes, in Boston, Providence, Cincinnati, and other large places, show most conclusively, that if these efforts can be increased, in number and vigor, and prosecuted steadily and systematically, in every district where masses of human beings in abject poverty, and with profligate habits, are crowded together, they will mitigate the ills and evils of the present, and land us in a purer and better generation. Children, who seem banished by the accident of birth from the decencies and proprieties of life, will not only be restored to humanity, and become useful men and women, but be transformed into the sons and daughters of God.

When the missionary, philanthropist and teacher have done all this, and more, there will be cases of truancy and vagabondism which can only be reached by the stern summons and the strong arm of the law. For such cases, one or more institutions, similar to the "Farm School," near Boston, or the "Reform Schools," or "Schools of Industry," in some parts of Europe, should be provided, where these young barbarians can be tamed into the manners and habits of civilized life, and society be saved from the revenge which they will otherwise wreak upon its peace for their neglected childhood.

When all these expedients and plans have failed, the law of self-preservation imperiously demands that political institutions, which are embodied in written constitutions and laws, should not pass into the keeping of juries, witnesses, and electors, who can not write the verdict they may render, or read the vote they may cast into the ballot-box. The right of suffrage should be withheld from such as can not give the lowest evidence of school attendance and proficiency.

AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS.

First, in point of numbers here as well as elsewhere, the agricultural population will ever be of the highest importance to the dignity and strength of the State. It is from the rural districts, that the manufacturing population recruits its waste, and draws the bone and muscle of its laborers, and much of the energy of its directing force. It is from the country, that the city is ever deriving its fresh supply of men of talent and energy, to stand foremost among its mechanics, merchants, and professional men. It is on the country that the other interests of society fall back in critical seasons, and as a forlorn hope in moments of imminent peril. Just in proportion as the means of intellectual and moral improvement abound in the country, and coöperate with the healthy forces of nature and occupation to build up men of strong minds, and pure purposes in strong bodies, do her sons fill the high places of profit, enterprise and influence in the city and the manufacturing village.

In respect to education, the country has advantages and disadvantages peculiar to itself. The sparseness of the population forbids the concentration of scholars into large districts, and the consequent gradation of schools which is so desirable, and even essential to thoroughness of school instruction. The limited means and frugal habits of the country preclude the employment of teachers or professional men, of the highest order of talent and attainments, and thus, both the direct and indirect benefits of their educational influences are not felt. The secluded situation and pressing cares of daily life, foster a stagnation of mind, and want of sensibility to the refinements and practical advantages of education.

On the other hand, country life has its advantages. There is the bodily energy and the freshness and force of mind which are consequent upon it. These are secured by the pure air, the rough exposure, the healthy sports and laborious toil of the country. Hence boys bred in the country endure longest the wear and waste of hard study, and the more exciting scenes of life. There is the calmness and seclusion which is favorable to studious habits, and to that reflection which appropriates knowledge into the very substance of the mind. There is freshness of imagination, nurtured by wandering over hill and dale, and looking at all things growing and living, which, unsoiled and untired as yet in its wing, takes long and delighted flights. There is ardor and eagerness after eminence, which gathers strength like a long pent fire, and breaks out with greater energy when it has room to show itself. Above all, there is often, and may be always, a more perfect domestic education, as parents have their children more entirely within their control, and the home is more completely, for the time being, the whole world to the family. Wherever these favorable circumstances are combined with the advantages of good teachers, good books, and the personal influence of educated men, there will boyhood and youth receive its best training for a long life of useful and honorable effort. But in these agencies of education, the country portions of the State are greatly deficient—relatively more deficient than manufacturing villages. The teachers are almost universally young men, with no education beyond what can be obtained in ordinary district schools, inexperienced in life, and in their own profession, with no expectation of continuing in the same school more than three or four months, or in the business any longer than they can accomplish some temporary object. Even when they are well qualified, by knowledge, age and experience, and feel a more than ordinary interest in improving the schools, because they are the schools of their town or State, their connection with them is so transient, and the impediments from poor school-houses, backward scholars, irregular attendance, diversity of ages, studies and books, want of interest in parents and committees, are so great, they can accomplish but very little good. The deficiencies of the schools are not supplied to any great extent, by school, or town, or circulating libraries, or by courses of popular lectures. There is not a single lyceum, or course of lectures open to the agricultural population, distinct from those which are established in a few of the manufacturing villages. From the want of such facilities for nurturing the popular mind, there is less of that intellectual activity, of that spirit of inquiry, and desire for knowledge, and of that improved tone of conversation which the discussions and addresses of able and distinguished

men, in the lecture room are sure to awaken, and which constitute an educating influence of a powerful and extensive character, in large places.

To supply these wants in the agricultural districts, public education in all its bearings, must be continually held up and discussed before the people. The lecturer, the editor, the preacher, educated men in public and private life, should do all in their power to cherish and sustain an interest on this subject. The direct and indirect results of such an education as can be given in good public schools, such as have been sustained in past years, and are now sustained in other parts of New England, under circumstances as unfavorable as exist in any portion of this State, upon the pecuniary prosperity of a family of children, should be largely illustrated and insisted on. It should become a familiar truth in every family, that the father who gives his children a good practical education, secures them not only the means of living, but of filling places of honor and trust, in the community, more certainly than if he could leave to each the entire homestead. The young man who has been so well educated in the public schools, with such special training as Teachers' Institutes, and a Normal School supported in part by the State, could impart, that he can step from the plough in the summer, to the school-room as a teacher in the winter, or into any kind of business which requires a thoughtful mind, as well as a strong and a skillful hand, will, before he is thirty years of age, be in the receipt of an income greater than any farmer in one hundred can realize out of the best farm, if owned in fee simple, with his own labor bestowed upon it. But to give such an education, the country district schools must be improved. Better schoolhouses must be provided. Accomplished female teachers must be employed for the young children, whose services can be of no use on the farm, or at home, during all the warm season of the year. In the winter the older children must come together from a wider circuit of territory, and pursue the more advanced studies by themselves, so that they can acquire habits of intense application, and receive the undivided attention of a well-qualified teacher. If their early culture has been properly attended to, in the primary summer schools, so as to have had imparted to them the desire and ability to know more, they will later in life, come into the winter schools with their hands hardened with honorable toil, their cheeks brown from exposure to the healthful influence of sun and air, their muscles and frame capable of long and patient endurance, and their minds prepared to grapple with the difficulties of knowledge, and gather in the richest harvests. The best minds of Connecticut, and of New England, have been thus matured and trained. The most honored names in her present and past history belong to men who have gone alternately from the field of summer, to the school in winter, and later in life, from the plough to the college, or the merchant's desk, or the post of superintendent or master-workman in the mill, or the workshop.

The course of instruction in the country schools should be modified. It should deal less with books and more with real objects in nature around—more with facts and principles which can be illustrated by reference to the actual business of life. The elementary principles of botany, mineralogy, geology, and chemistry, and their connection with practical agriculture, should be taught. A love for nature, to the enjoyment of which all are alike born, without distinction—an appreciation of the beauty which will be every day above and around them, and a thoughtful observance and consideration of the laws of an incessantly working creation, in coöperation with which they must work, if as farmers they are to work successfully, ought to be cultivated in every child, and especially in every one whose lot is likely to be cast in the country. All these things can be done, without crowding out any thing really valuable, now taught in public schools—provided the ample school attendance of children can be secured, and teachers of the right qualifications employed. Such teachers need not be expensive. The country towns ought to be able to supply the regular demand of their own schools, for this class of teachers. But whatever else may be taught, or omitted, the ability, and the taste for reading, should be communicated in the school, and the means of continuing the habit at home, through the long winter evenings, by convenient access to district or town school libraries, should be furnished. The desire to read can be fostered, and turned into useful channels, by occasional lectures of a practical kind, and

especially on subjects which will admit of visible illustration, and experiments, and by the establishment of school libraries.

By suitable efforts on the part of public spirited and influential men, the interest which has already manifested itself in the country towns, can be increased, and the improvements already commenced in school-houses, school attendance, and teachers, can be continued, until there shall not be a rural district which is not animated with true intellectual and moral life.

MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS.

The portion of our population engaged in manufactures and trades, is fast increasing, and will soon exceed that devoted to agricultural pursuits. This population, from its necessary concentration into villages, can receive every advantage arising from the gradation of schools, and the division of labor in instruction. The smaller children can be gathered into infant and primary schools, through the year, in which all the exercises shall be adapted to their unripe faculties, and the entire attention of the teacher can be devoted to their physical comfort—their manners as well as their intellectual improvement. The older scholars can be assembled for certain portions of the year at last, in large classes, and thus stimulate each other to vigorous effort, and receive the undivided attention of teachers of the highest order of qualifications. Lyceums and libraries can be readily supported, to quicken the mind, improve the tone and topics of conversation, preserve from hurtful amusements and gross indulgences, bless the fireside, and give dignity and increased value to mere muscular labor.

There is is a quickness of intelligence, an aptitude for excitement, an absence of bigoted prejudice for what is old, and a generous liberality in expenditures among a manufacturing population, all of which are favorable to educational improvement. The mind is stimulated by being associated with other minds. It becomes familiar with great operations. It is tasked often to inventive efforts in devising and improving machinery. It is surrounded every moment with striking illustrations of the triumphs of mind over matter. Every thing with which it has to do is an eloquent witness to the value of education, to its splendid pecuniary results, as well as to its power to make material instruments to bend to its will, and to become gigantic forces for good to mankind.

These facilities for mental improvement, both among the young and the adult population, in a manufacturing village, may become causes of moral degeneracy, and are often accompanied by circumstances which operate with fearful energy to corrupt and destroy. The mind is stimulated to an unnatural activity. The passions crave excessive and dangerous excitements. The moral principles are hindered from a strong and full development, or are broken down by a sudden onset of temptation. The young are crowded together in the family, the school, the mill, and the streets, and too often become the means of mutual corruption. Their many hours of labor, and long confinement in the close atmosphere of the factory, away from the varied sights of nature, during the week, waste away their physical energy, and is made the excuse for spending so much of the evenings as are at their disposal, in artificial excitements, and their Sabbaths in the fields, or in carriage excursions. The charm, seclusion, and refinement of a pleasant home, are often denied them in their hours of rest and relaxation. Their dwellings are crowded together, with apartments few and small, too often badly lighted, and badly ventilated, comfortless within, and looking out upon a street without a tree, or upon grounds devoid of the cheerful green, which nature is so eager every where to throw about her as her graceful drapery. Their homes have seldom any yards inclosed, to repel the rudeness of the passer-by, or to invite the healthy and humanizing cultivation of flowers, shrubbery, and vegetables. Females are prevented by their early occupation in the mills, from learning needle-work, and from acquiring those habits of forethought, neatness and order, without which, they can not, when they grow up to womanhood, and have the charge of families of their own, make their own homes the abodes of economy, thrift, and comfort. Many of the young people engaged in the mills, are living away from their family homes, and do not feel the restraints from vicious courses which a respect for the good opinion of relatives and friends exerts. Facilities for corruption and vice abound, and the swiftness with which

such corruption of principle and character ripens to ruin, is fearfully rapid. The admixture of people from different nations, and the constantly fluctuating state of society, are additional causes of evil, and impediments to any regular plan of improvement. To these various causes of deterioration, to which a manufacturing population are exposed, it must also be added, that the facilities for a proper classification of the schools, and the establishment of permanent schools, at least for the young children, are not improved.

That the manufacturing population are so pure, refined, and educated as they unquestionably are, considering the many unfavorable circumstances of their position, and the causes which are constantly at work to deteriorate and corrupt, is owing to the fact, that the original population of these villages came from the country, and that a large portion of the yearly increase is drawn from this source of supply, bringing with them the fixed habits, the strong family attachments, and elevated domestic education, which have ever characterized the country homes of New England. The first generation of this population has passed, or is passing away. What is to be the character of the second and the third?—not trained to the same extent, and soon not trained to any appreciable extent, in the country, but in the crowded village, and under all these exciting influences? It is for the friends of education to decide—to decide speedily, and act with energy; and to bring out all the capacities and influences for good which exist in their midst, just in proportion as those influences for evil gather and increase. Let this be done, and these villages may become not only the workshops of America, and the prolific sources of wealth and physical comfort to Connecticut, but radiant points of intellectual and moral light—the ornament, strength and glory of the State.

1. Convenient and attractive school edifices should be erected. This is not done to any considerable extent. There are more than fifty manufacturing districts, where these buildings are not sufficiently large and convenient for the number of pupils who do attend, much less for the number which should attend, for portions of the year at least.

School-houses in manufacturing districts should be provided with halls for popular lectures, and rooms for a library, collections in natural history, evening classes, reading circles, and even gatherings for conversation, unless these objects are provided for in a separate building.

2. The schools should be kept open during the year, and at least two grades of schools should be established. Special attention should be given to the primary schools. It is here that the great strength of educational influence for such a population can be bestowed with the best hope of success. It is here that children can be taken early, and when children are precocious, they must be taken at the earliest opportunity, if the seeds of good are to be planted before the seeds of evil begin to germinate. Here the defects of their domestic and social training, can in a measure be supplied. Here by kindness, patience, order, and the elevating influences of music, joyous groups may enjoy the sunshine of a happy childhood at school, and be bound to respectability and virtue, by ties which they will not willingly break. These schools, made, as they can be made by female teachers of the requisite tact and qualification, the loved and happy resorts of the young, devoted in a great measure to the cultivation of the manners, personal habits, and morals of the pupils, may be regarded as the most efficient instrumentality to save and elevate the children from the corrupting influences of constant association, when that association is not under the supervision of parents or teachers, and to prepare them for institutions of higher instruction.

3. The course of instruction in these schools, both in primary and higher grade, should be framed and conducted, to some extent, in reference to the future social and practical wants of the pupils. It should cultivate a taste for music, drawing and other kindred pursuits, not only for their practical utility, but for their refining and elevating influences on the character, and as sources of innocent and rational amusement after toil, in every period of life, and in every station in society. Drawing, especially, should be commenced in the primary school, and continued with those who show a decided tact and aptitude for its highest attainments, to the latest opportunity which the public school can

give. It is the best study to educate the eye to habits of quick and accurate observation—the mind to a ready power of attention, discrimination, and reasoning—and the hand to dexterous and rapid execution. It cultivates a taste for the beauties of nature and art, and fills the soul with forms and images of loveliness and grandeur which the eye has studied, and the hand has traced. It is the best language of form;—by a few strokes of the pen or pencil, a better idea of a building, a piece of mechanism, or any production of art, can be given, than by any number of words, however felicitously used. It may be introduced as an amusement in the infant and primary schools—may be made to illustrate and aid in the acquisition of almost every study in the higher schools, and is indispensable to the highest success in many departments of labor in manufacturing and mechanical business. If Connecticut is to compete successfully with other countries in those productions into which a cultivated taste, and high artistic skill enters, the taste where it exists must be early developed by appropriate exercises in the public school, and opportunities for higher attainments be offered in a "school of the arts."

In the higher departments, or schools, there should be exercises in the mathematical studies, calculated to familiarize the scholar with the principles of many of the daily operations in the mills and workshops, and thus lay the foundation for greater practical skill, and for new inventions or new combinations and application of existing discoveries.

To supply obvious deficiencies in the domestic education of girls, plain needlework should be taught in the primary schools, as is now done in all the schools of this grade in the city of New York; and in the higher departments, some instruction should be given in physiology.

4. Teachers should be selected in reference, not only to the ordinary duties required of all teachers in the school-room, but for their ability to exert a social influence of the right character. They should have the faculty of adapting themselves to the society of the young, to draw them into evening classes for instruction, and social circles for refined and innocent amusements, and to create a taste for books, and to direct their reading. They should be able to give familiar lectures on chemistry and mechanical philosophy, and illustrate the scientific principles which govern all the forces of wave and steam, at work in the mills. They should take a decided interest in every thing that relates to the moral and intellectual improvement of the people. They should be capable of so directing the course of instruction in the school, and their exertions and influences on the young and the old, out of the school, as that all may become useful and contented in whatever sphere of employment they may be called to fill.

5. A library of good books, selected in reference to the intellectual wants of the old and the young, should be provided in every village. To create a taste for reading should be a leading object in the labors of teachers and lecturers. All that the school, even the best, where so much is to be done in the way of disciplining the faculties—all that the ablest lecture, when accompanied by illustrations and experiments, can do, towards unfolding the many branches of knowledge, and filling the mind with various information, is but little compared with the thoughtful perusal of good books, from evening to evening, extending through a series of years. These are the great instruments of self-culture, when their truths are inwrought by reflection into the very structure of the mind, and made to shed light on the daily labors of the workshop. There should be a due proportion of books of science and useful knowledge, of voyages, travels and biography, and a good supply of judiciously chosen works of fiction. It has been a great mistake heretofore, in selecting books for public libraries, as well as in providing courses of lectures, intended mainly for the poorer and working classes, to suppose that scientific and purely useful knowledge should be almost the exclusive objects of attention. The taste for reading and lectures of this character, must first be created, and the ability to follow a continuous train of thought, whether printed or spoken, must be imparted by a previous discipline. This taste and ability are too often wanting. The books and lectures, therefore, should be very interesting, and calculated to create a taste for further reading and inquiry.

6. Courses of lectures should be provided—partly of a scientific, and partly

of a miscellaneous character, and each calculated to give the largest amount of sound instruction, to awaken the highest degree of healthy intellectual activity, and impart the fullest measure of innocent and rational amusement. The object of these lectures—if they are to be extensively useful, and permanently supported, must not be simply or mainly intellectual improvement, but to present that which can occupy the thoughts innocently, when they crave to be occupied with something; to engage the affections, which absolutely refuse to be left void; to supply resources of recreation after a long day's toil, of such variety as shall meet the wants of different tastes and capacities—of tastes and capacities as yet but little cultivated and developed, but which may be gradually led into higher and higher regions of thought and attainment. Such lectures will shed an influence of the most lasting and salutary character throughout the various occupations and conditions of a manufacturing population. Parents will mark the awakened curiosity of the young; employers will see higher intellectual and moral aims in the actions and language of men in their employ; those who have had the advantage of a systematic education, will here have an opportunity to continue their mental discipline and attainments; those whose opportunities were more restricted, will find in these lectures the promptings and instruments of self-culture; conversation on topics of broad and abiding interest, will take the place of idle gossip, political wrangling, and personal abuse; the longings for artificial excitements furnished at the dens of iniquity, which abound in all large villages, will be expelled by the many wholesome fountains of thought and feeling which will be opened in the contemplation of God's works, and the perusal of good books, to which many will, in the lecture-room, be led; and, what will penetrate to the very well-springs of the best influences which society can feel, higher and purer sources of intellectual enjoyment and culture will be opened to the female sex, who have every where shown an eager desire to attend courses of popular lectures, and whose presence there may always be hailed as a pledge of the attendance of the most intelligent, refined and respectable of the other sex, and as the best protection from the annoyance of bad manners, and rude interruptions, which are sometimes exhibited at large popular meetings of the male sex alone.

7. Reading rooms, furnished with the periodical publications of the day, with maps and books of reference, and if practicable with portfolios of engravings and pictorial embellishments, with models and descriptions of new and ingenious inventions for abridging labor, with specimens of shells, stones, plants, seeds, and flowers in their season, with any thing, in fine, which, by gratifying the eye, and provoking and satisfying the curiosity to know, shall become attractive places of resort in the neighborhood, should be established. In connection with the reading-room, or with rooms appropriated to innocent games and means of recreation, there should be a room for conversation—a sort of social and intellectual exchange, to take the place of gatherings at the corners of streets, or places of idle and vicious resort.

To these rooms, as well as to the lectures and library, all classes should have access, and especially should the more wealthy and intelligent resort there, if for no other reason, than to bear the testimony of their presence and participation, to the value of these pursuits, and of these and other means of intellectual and social improvement, and amusement. It will interfere but little with their time and convenience, and the return will be manifold, in the prejudices of various kinds which will be detached from the minds of laborer and capitalist, and of the families of all classes, in listening to the same lectures, reading the same books, deriving pleasure from the same sources, conversing on the same topics—in being, where every bosom is warmed and thrilled by the beatings of the common heart of humanity. It is a matter of vital importance to manufacturing villages, to close the deep gulf with precipitous sides, which too often separates one set of men from their fellows—to soften and round the distinctions of society which are no where else so sharply defined. This separation of society is utterly at war with our political theories, and must ever be accompanied with contempt, exclusiveness and apprehension on one side, and on the other with envying, jealousies, curses not loud but deep, and occasionally with outbreaks which will carry the desolation of a tornado in their track. To do away with the real classification of society which difference of education, and especially

difference in manners, and intellectual tastes will unavoidably create, these differences must be done away with—at least all the elements of earthly happiness, and of a pleasant and profitable social intercourse, should be brought within reach of all, by giving to all through good public schools, and other means of public education, good manners, intelligent and inquiring minds, refined tastes, and the desire and ability to be brought into communion with those who possess these qualities, and at the same time partake of the rich heritage of noble thoughts which the great authors of our own and other times, and of our own and other countries, have bequeathed without restriction, to the whole human family.

It should be every where proclaimed, and inwrought into every plan for improving the condition of society, especially in manufacturing villages and large towns, that good public schools and religious institutions, important and essential as they unquestionably are, do not take the precedence of all other means, or exclude the adoption of others supplementary to them. Whatever can be devised to improve the physical condition of the poor—to make the home of the operatives more comfortable and attractive—to secure to its inmates more delight at their own family board and firesides—to elevate the manners, and refine the intercourse of the lodgers at the boarding-houses—to cultivate household virtues and habits of saving—to make the lyceum, the reading-room, the lecture, the evening class, attractive and profitable—to awaken and cultivate a perception of whatever is beautiful and good in nature, art, or human manners and character—to encourage cheap, innocent and daily amusements, and discourage those which are expensive, rude and sensual, and to elevate the tone of social intercourse—all these things will do good and tend to educate the whole community, and improve the condition of the manufacturing population. Let not the Christian intent on the reformation of the soul, and its fitness for another state, forget that the soul is tied to the body, and that through the body, and in these various ways it can be acted on for its good. Let him not be unmindful, that it is practical Christianity acting itself out in these various forms, and filling up every opening where good can be done, which commends itself to the consciences of all men, as like its master, "going about doing good." Let the lover of his kind remember that the social atmosphere of one of these villages may be instinct with moral health, or may be laden wilh a miasma deadly to the character and the soul.

The condition and improvement of her manufacturing population, in connection with the education of the whole people, is at this time the great problem for New England to work out. Here are concentrated the elements of corruption, of upbreak, and overthrow, to all, that, in her past history, she has held most precious. Here are the capacities for social, moral and intellectual improvement, and the productive forces for the creation of wealth, and material prosperity, which shall spread along every valley, beautiful and prosperous villages, and through all her borders, a contented, moral and intellectual people. Regarding only its pecuniary return, the moral and intellectual advancement of her manufacturing population, is a matter of commanding interest. It is the mind and character, the regular habits, the inventive resources, the ready power to adopt better means to accomplish the same end, the facility of turning from one kind of work to another when the fluctuations of business require it, the quickness to understand and execute the directions given without constant supervision, the economy in the use, and in preventing the waste, of materials—it is the almost universal possession of these qualities by the American laborer, who has received a good New England family and school education, which enables him to compete so successfully with the muscles of the foreign laborer, who works at a lower compensation, but with less productive power.

CITIES.

Of public schools, and other means of popular education in cities and large boroughs, it matters not what may be their municipal designation, where the population is largely concentrated, and the occupations of society are greatly diversified, little need be said which has not been anticipated. Much that has been presented in reference to the facilities of improvement, and causes of

deterioration in a manufacturing population, is applicable to cities. Most of these facilities and causes, both of corruption and improvement, exist, and are at work in the city with greater power and intensity. Here the wealth, enterprise and professional talent of the state are concentrated; here schools, libraries and literary associations abound; here are institutions of charity, and every means of religious instruction. But here too are poverty, ignorance, profligacy, and irreligion, and a classification of society as broad and deep as ever divided the plebeian and patrician of ancient Rome. Here education, philanthropy, patriotism and Christianity have a great work to do, if these harsh and discordant elements are to be harmonized, and the large towns are to become not only the great centers of arts, trade and commerce, but the prolific fountains of intellectual and moral improvement to the whole State.

The first great step to be taken in our cities is to improve the territorial, and administrative agencies, and organization of our common schools so as to enable all the people of a city or borough to act on this great interest as they act on their other great interests and bring the common school prominently forward as an institution which holds a deservedly high place in the eyes and affections of all, as the security, ornament and blessing of the present and the hope of all future generations. Instead of administering the system through two or more independent and it may be, half beligerent and jealous districts, and through a double or treble set of officers, elected by different parts of the same constituency, and each charged with only portions of one supervisory power, which thus is frittered away through many agencies instead of acting directly on every school in all parts of the same city—let there be an immediate union of all the districts so that the city or borough limits shall bound but one district, and then let all the schools come under the control of a general board, combining all the powers, financial and visitatorial which are necessary to establish and administer a sufficient number of common schools of different grades to meet the educational wants of all children. This committee can be elected by the citizens at large with the other city officers, or be appointed by the municipal authorities. The schools themselves should be organized in reference to the age and proficiency of the pupils, and the children should pass from a lower to a higher grade of school at stated periods, and after a suitable test of fitness as to age and knowledge. Teachers should be selected in reference to their possessing qualifications adapted to the grade of school they are to teach—and should be employed through the year, and from year to year as long as they possess the vitality and elasticity necessary to the highest success. School-houses should be attractive, comfortable and healthy, and arranged within and without in reference to the class of pupils—whether young or old—who are to occupy them. Text-books should be uniform in all schools of the same grade—and every teacher should be furnished with all needful apparatus to illustrate every study pursued in his school. Without dwelling any longer on the details of a school system, worthy of the wealth and population, and capable of meeting the educational wants of our cities and large villages, I will add, that we need in all our cities

1. A larger number of Primary Schools for little children—taught universally by female teachers of the requisite tact, patience, versatility, and prompt and kind sympathies.

2. Secondary, or Intermediate Schools—to carry forward children beyond the primary schools, and as far as our first class of common schools in cities now take their pupils.

3. A High School—for boys and girls in the same, or separate departments—in which every thing which is now done in private schools of the highest grade, if called for by the intellectual and moral wants of the community, should be thoroughly taught, so that the same advantages without being abridged, or denied to the children of the rich and the educated, should be open at the same time to worthy and talented children of the poorest parent. The course of instruction, begun in the Primary School, and continued through successive classes, should in the end give to every young man a thorough English education preparatory to the pursuits of agriculture, commerce, trade, manufactures, and the mechanical arts, and if desired, for college; and to every young woman a well disciplined mind, high moral aims, and practical views of her own duties,

and those resources of health, thought, manners, and conversation which bless alike the highest and lowest stations in life.

Let a system of common schools, organized on the general principles above set forth, and graduated on the plan developed at some length in my last Annual Report, be once established, and liberally supported, and the interest and inquiry it will create will soon lead to other desirable improvement in popular education—especially in our large cities.

Evening schools, and supplementary agencies of various kinds, like those at Aberdeen in Scotland, in New York, Philadelphia, and other cities at home and abroad, will be provided to supply deficiencies in the education of individuals whose school attendance was prematurely abridged, or from any cause interfered with. Apprentices, clerks, and other young persons, who have been hurried into active employment without a suitable elementary education, will have an opportunity to devote a few hours in an evening, and a few evenings in a week to studies directly connected with their several trades, or pursuits.

Libraries, and courses of familiar lectures with practical illustrations, collections in natural history and science, a system of scientific exchanges between schools, of the same and different towns, specimens of mechanical inventions to abridge labor, collections in the fine arts—all of these and other agencies of popular education will be provided on a larger or smaller scale in every community where a good system of common schools has done or is doing its appropriate work. And outside of all other agencies, the Reform School, and better than that, as preventing that which the Reform School aims to correct and reform—the Industrial School should be established at one or more points in the state, to receive such children, as defying the restraining influence of parental authority, and the discipline and regulations of the public schools, or such as are abandoned by orphanage, or worse than orphanage, by parental neglect or example, to idle, vicious and pilfering habits, are found hanging about places of public resort, polluting the air by their profane and vulgar speech, alluring, to their own bad practices, children of the same, and other conditions of life, and originating or participating in every street brawl and low-bred riot. Such children can not safely be gathered into the public schools: and if they are, their vagrant habits are chafed by the restraints of school discipline. They soon become irregular, play truant, are punished and expelled, and from that time their course is most uniformly downward, until on earth there is no lower point to reach.

But in these—at least in most of these agencies of popular education, especially in that which is at the foundation of all our plans for popular improvement in cities—the common school—common because it is practically open to and enjoyed by all as being cheap enough for the poorest, and good enough for the best—in such common schools, our cities are behind some of equal population, wealth and refinement, in other states. When compared with many cities and villages in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, where the schools are properly organized and supported, it is found that in all the cities and large villages of this state, with the exception of three, the attendance in the public school is less, the attendance in private schools greater, the appropriations for school purposes smaller, the course of instruction less complete, the supervision of committees less constant and vigilant, and the interest of parents and the communities less active and intelligent.

IMPROVEMENTS IN THE SYSTEM OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

In the remarks which I had the privilege of addressing to the two Houses of Assembly, I dwelt at some length on certain specified plans of improvement, which had been presented to the Legislature by School Visitors in their reports, by the friends of common schools, and the Joint Standing Committee on Education. In concluding this communication, I will briefly recapitulate certain features, which it seems to me desirable to incorporate into our system of common schools.

I. The territorial organization and administrative agencies of our common schools, should be made more simple and efficient.

1. By making School Societies co-extensive with the limits of the towns, thus

reducing the number of societies, and bringing the school interest directly before the people when assembled for other municipal purposes.

2. By reducing the number of school districts. 1. By abolishing those which can not maintain an efficient school even with the extra aid from the state and town. 2. By making each incorporated city and borough a school district. 3. By giving facilities and holding out inducements for districts to consolidate for the purpose of maintaining a graded system of schools.

3. By blending the financial and supervisory powers and duties now exercised by the school committee and board of visitors, into one board of control for a society, and by authorizing districts to transfer the local mangement of their district schools to this board.

4. By extending the term of office to three years and have one-third only elected each year.

II. The means provided for the support of common schools should be increased, and should be raised and appropriated in such ways as to awaken the highest degree of parental and public interest, and secure the greatest practicable equality of the best school privileges to all the children of the State.

1. The sum appropriated from the Treasury of the State should be at least one dollar and fifty cents for every child entitled from age to attend school; and any deficiency in the School Fund should be supplied from the civil list funds of the State. The sum should be certain, and large enough to stimulate societies, districts and parents, to corresponding efforts to obtain and rightly apply the same.

2. Towns or societies should be obliged to raise by tax on the grand list annually, a sum at least equal to one-third of the amount appropriated by the State, excluding the income of the town deposite fund, the whole of which should be devoted to school purposes.

3. The money appropriated by the State, and raised by tax on the property of towns, should be designated "teacher's money," and should be applied only to the payment of the wages of teachers—and should be drawn from the town or society treasury only on the order of the committee of the society in favor of the teacher, and for his wages only.

4. The money appropriated by the State, town or society, should be apportioned among the school districts according to the average attendance of scholars in school.

5. Districts and societies should be authorized to establish a rate bill or tuition, to be paid by parents or guardians of children at school, graduated according to the class of school, and in no way oppressive to the poor, and diminishing to each family according to the number of children attending school the same term.

6. Every district should, on keeping its school according to law during the year previous, be entitled to receive from the State and town appropriation, a sum sufficient to employ a teacher qualified for that district, for a period of at least eight months in the year.

7. The district which makes the greatest efforts to employ good teachers throughout the year, in proportion to its pecuniary means and population, should receive an extra allowance from the town treasury.

III. A broad and liberal system of measures should be adopted by the State, to provide a supply of well qualified teachers, and to exclude from the common schools all persons who do not possess the requisite moral character, "aptness to teach" and govern children, literary attainments, and professional experience.

1. The law must provide, that districts have the pecuniary ability, by resources within themselves, or by aid from the treasury of the State, town or society, to pay the market value of good teachers; and to continue such teachers in the same school through the year. There are in the State not more than one hundred districts, in which, from the small number of scholars, and from the withdrawal of the older boys and girls for field or household work, at certain periods of the year, annual schools can not be maintained, and in the districts referred to, schools could be maintained for at least eight months.

2. A scale of examination, and certificates based on the same, should be established, consisting of at least three grades. The first and lowest should entitle the holder to teach in a certain specified school or district for one year. The second should be available throughout the schools of a country for two years, and should be given only to those, who in addition to the specified examination, have had at least one year of successful experience. The third should be good throughout the State, and for at least three years, and should constitute the highest evidence that the holders possess the right spirit, character, attainments, and practical skill for the highest grade of school.

3. The compensation of teachers should be based somewhat on the grade of certificate held by them. The names of persons holding the State certificates, should be from time to time published in the annual report of the Superintendent.

4. In the present condition of the schools the examination for certificates should be conducted by a county board, at the time of holding the County Teacher's Institutes. This would be an additional inducement for a full attendance of all teachers who wished to get a higher grade of certificate, as well as of all young persons who propose to enter the profession.

5. Connected with the plan of examination and certificates, there should be a county system of school inspection, by which incompetent and unworthy members shall be excluded from the profession.

6. To make the above provisions truly valuable and efficient, opportunities now provided, and institutions and agencies now established by which young men and young women of the right spirit and character, can get a thorough professional training, must be continued, enlarged and improved.

IV. Some efficient steps should be taken to secure a uniformity of text-books in all of the schools of the same society, and in all the societies, at least of the same county, by the action of either a State or County Board.

V. The law should make it imperative on towns, societies, or districts, to provide suitable school-houses, furniture, and appendages for the same, apparatus for the use of the teacher, and a school library; and in extreme cases, should be authorized to take land for school purposes, on the award of a disinterested tribunal.

Let these, or some more efficient features, be engrafted on our system of common schools, and Connecticut will soon occupy again, the front rank in the great work of popular education.

In 1851, the Superintendent of Common Schools (Mr. Barnard,) resumed the publication of the "*Connecticut Common School Journal*," which was "suspended in 1842, until a brighter day should dawn on the educational interests of the State." The subject is thus referred to in his Annual Report, submitted to the General Assembly in May, 1852.

SCHOOL JOURNAL AND THE PUBLIC PRESS.

As a convenient mode of communicating with school officers, teachers, and friends of educational improvement in different sections of the State, and as an important auxiliary in the discharge of my official duties, I have assumed the responsibility of commencing the publication of a new series of the "*Connecticut Common School Journal.*"

As announced in the prospectus, the Journal will be the repository of all documents of a permanent value, relating to the history, condition, and improvement of public schools, and other means of popular education in the State. It will contain the laws of the State, relating to schools, with such forms and explanations as may be necessary to secure uniformity and efficiency in their administration. It will contain suggestions and improved plans for repairs, construction and internal arrangement of school-houses. It will aim to form, encourage, and bring forward good teachers; and to enlist the active and intelli-

gent coöperation of parents, with teachers and committees in the management and instruction of schools. It will give notice of all local and general meetings of associations relating to public schools, and publish any communications respecting their proceedings. It will give information of what is doing in other states and countries, with regard to popular education, and in every way help keep alive a spirit of efficient and prudent action in behalf of the physical, intellectual, and moral improvement of the rising and all future generations in the State.

The numbers thus far published of the current volume do not contain the usual variety of such a periodical, being devoted almost exclusively to a discourse on the life and character of the Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, and to documents illustrative of his services to the cause of deaf-mute instruction, and to the American Asylum for the education of deaf and dumb persons at Hartford. Feeling that the best lights of my own mind have been drawn and fed from his wise counsels, and the best purposes of my own heart have been strengthened by the beauty of his daily life, I could not neglect this opportunity of placing before school officers and teachers this memorial of a wise educator, and an every-day Christian gentleman. The name of Gallaudet will ever constitute a portion of the moral treasure of Connecticut. The numbers of the Journal devoted to this tribute to his memory will be presented to such members of the Assembly as will apply to this office.

In addition to the publication of a monthly periodical, devoted exclusively to the promotion of educational improvement, no pains has been spared to interest the conductors of our newspaper press generally to introduce into their columns, reports and discussions on the condition and improvement of our common schools, and other institutions and means of popular education. In no one year has so much educational matter been spread through these channels before the people of the State. For the uniform courtesy, with which all applications, on my part for giving publicity to notices for Institutes and lectures, have been met, I wish to make this public acknowledgment. Without the cordial and general coöperation of the press of the State, the process of school improvement will be slow indeed.

The Superintendent thus speaks of his operations in Teachers' Institutes, Lectures, &c., in his "Seventh Annual Report, submitted May, 1852."

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

During the year, nine Institutes or Conventions of Teachers have been held in different parts of the State, one more than was required by law, and for which no pecuniary aid was received from the State. The aggregate attendance of teachers at the nine Institutes, was about nine hundred. Each Institute was opened by a public lecture on the Monday evening of the week for which it was appointed, and continued in session until the close of the Friday evening following. The exercises during the day were devoted to the familiar exposition of the best modes of classifying, governing, and teaching our common schools. At each Institute the evenings were devoted to lectures and discussions on topics connected with the improvement of common schools, and other means of popular education in Connecticut, intended to interest parents, children, and the community generally, as well as teachers.

Before dismissing this subject, I beg leave to remark:—

1. The value of this class of meetings, both to teachers and the communities where they are held, is universally acknowledged, and not an intimation has reached me from any quarter, that they should be abandoned.

2. My connection with Institutes every year for more than twelve years has satisfied me that to secure the continued interest and attendance of teachers in this class of meetings, the exercises must be instructive and varied; the persons conducting the exercises and delivering lectures, must have a reputation which will command in advance the confidence of the best teachers; the time and place for each Institute must be judiciously chosen, and the wants of the schools at particular periods of the year must be consulted.

3. The appropriation now made, viz., only eighteen dollars on the average, to secure assistance in instruction and lectures at each Institute, with an allowance for printing circulars, and the travel of the Superintendent, is altogether inadequate—thereby imposing a heavy pecuniary burden on the Superintendent, and subjecting public-spirited individuals, who have no private or professional interest in the improvement of the schools, to great sacrifices of time for the common benefit of the State.

4. Interesting and profitable as these Institutes have already proved to teachers, the schools, and the community, they can be made still more interesting and profitable, and a larger attendance of teachers can be secured during each year, and more places can be reached and blessed by their influence, if the Superintendent can be left at liberty to appoint and hold as many of this class of meetings, at such times and at such periods of the year, as he shall deem best, without regard to county lines or particular months, provided he has reasonable assurance of the attendance of at least forty teachers, and provided the expense of each Institute shall not exceed one dollar for each teacher in attendance, or fifty dollars on an average to each Institute.

EDUCATIONAL LECTURES.

In pursuance of a plan set forth in my Report for 1850, and of a resolution of the General Assembly in May of that year, I have continued to hold meetings of such persons as were disposed to come together on public notice, in different school societies, for familiar and practical addresses and discussions on topics connected with the organization and administration of the school system, and of the classification, instruction, and discipline of public schools. With the coöperation of several gentlemen, all of them successful teachers, and most of them, experienced school officers, more than four hundred addresses have been delivered in different sections of the State. But for the failure of certain appointments from want of due notice, and in some instances, on account of meetings for other objects at the only time in which I could provide an address, at least one address would have been delivered, not only in every school society, but in every large neighborhood. The expense of this movement, by the resolution of the General Assembly, is limited to three dollars for each society visited, a sum barely sufficient to meet the traveling expenses of the persons employed. For this trifling expenditure, an impulse of a most salutary and far reaching character has been given to the cause of school improvement, and the results are even now visible in the more enlightened and vigorous action of school districts, officers, and teachers.

COUNTY INSPECTION.

In pursuing this plan of operations, I have aimed to secure not only an address on topics connected with the condition and improvement of common schools, but to illustrate in a limited and imperfect manner, some of the advantages of a system of county inspection, and of a plan of reports which shall present the comparative standing of the schools in the several societies of the same county. With this end in view, the lecturers were requested to confer with school visitors and teachers, to visit at least two schools in each society in which an address was delivered, and after completing their circuit of lectures and visits, to present a report of their doings, and the results of their observations and inquiries.

ADDRESSES BY CLERGYMEN.

In addition to the lectures given in connection with this plan of school visitation, and meetings, I am happy to state that many clergymen have addressed their people on the subject at appropriate seasons. It is difficult for me to see what day and place would be inappropriate for a clergyman to address parents on their duties as to the education of children, or the community as to the care and improvement of their schools. It is due to the clergy of Connecticut, to say, that as a class they have done, and are doing more for the improvement of common schools, than any other and all other portions of the community together, the parents of the children at school not excepted. But some of them

can still find room for more vigorous efforts, and not weary themselves in well-doing.

MEETINGS OF TEACHERS WITH THEIR SCHOOLS.

In connection with the educational lectures, in several towns, meetings of all the teachers with their schools and the parents of the children, under the auspices of the school visitors, have been held with the most gratifying results. At these school celebrations, the best methods of conducting the exercises, and studies of our district schools, have been illustrated, with classes of children, in contrast with the methods in too many instances pursued by teachers, who have not enjoyed opportunities of visiting the best schools, or of studying and practicing the art of teaching under the direction of a master workman in the profession. This class of meetings and exercises have been held mainly by that excellent teacher and practical lecturer, Mr. William S. Baker, who has devoted the entire winter to the improvement of the common schools, by lectures, familiar visits to schools, and personal interviews with teachers and parents.

PROPOSED MODIFICATIONS OF THE SCHOOL LAW.

The Joint Standing Committee on Education, of the last General Assembly, submitted a bill for an Act in addition to and in alteration of "An Act concerning Education," which was continued to the present session, and ordered to be printed with the laws of 1851, that it might be brought to the notice of the people. To aid in this object, I caused an edition of the bill to be printed with a review of the action of the legislature for the last ten years, and circulated among school officers and friends of educational improvement. I have heard but one opinion expressed, and that in approval of all the main features of this bill, by those best acquainted with the present condition of our schools.

CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOL SOCIETIES COMMITTEE AND VISITORS.

Section 1 provides for a union in one committee, of the powers and duties now distributed between two sets of officers. This simple provision will bring the entire supervision of the school affairs of a society under one committee, and the certificate of this committee as to the expenditure of public money, the employment of duly qualified teachers for at least the period of the year required by law, and the regular visitation of the schools, will be based hereafter on the personal knowledge of the members, and not on the general declarations of district committees, or the more vague supposition that the schools have been kept according to law.

ABOLITION OF SCHOOL SOCIETIES.

Sections 2, 3, and 4, provide for the gradual restoration of our school system, with the consent and action of all interested, as far and as fast only as such consent shall be given, and such action had, to its original territorial organization. In reference to the policy of our present organization, I beg leave to repeat the views substantially which I have before communicated to the public. (*See Ante*, p. 288.)

GRADATION OF SCHOOLS.

To enable children to derive the highest degree of benefit from their attendance at school, they should go through a regular course of training in a succession of classes and schools arranged according to similarity of age, standing, and attainments, under teachers possessing the qualifications best adapted to each grade of school. The practice has been almost universal in Connecticut, and in other States where the organization of the schools is based upon the division of the territory into school districts, to provide but one school for as many children of both sexes, and of all ages from four to sixteen years, as can be gathered in from certain territorial limits, into one apartment, under one teacher;—a female teacher in summer, and a male teacher in winter. The disadvantages of this practice, both to pupils and teachers, are great and manifold.

There is a large amount of physical suffering and discomfort, as well as great hindrances in the proper arrangement of scholars and classes, caused by crowd-

ing the older and younger pupils into the same school-room, without seats and furniture appropriate to either; and the greatest amount of suffering and discomfort falls upon the young, who are least able to bear it, and who, in consequence, acquire a distaste to study and the school-room.

The work of education going on in such schools, can not be appropriate and progressive. There can not be a regular course of discipline and instruction, adapted to the age and proficiency of pupils—a series of processes, each adapted to certain periods in the development of the mind and character, the first intended to be followed by a second, and the second by a third; the latter always depending on the earlier, and all intended to be conducted on the same general principles, and by methods varying with the work to be done, and the progress already made.

With the older and younger pupils in the same room, there can not be a system of discipline which shall be equally well adapted to both classes. If it secures the cheerful obedience and subordination of the older, it will press with unwise severity upon the younger pupils. If it be adapted to the physical wants, and peculiar temperaments of the young, it will endanger the good order and habits of study of the more advanced pupils, by the frequent change of posture and position, and other indulgences, which it permits and requires of the former.

With studies ranging from the alphabet and the simplest rudiments of knowledge, to the higher branches of an English education, a variety of methods of instruction and illustration are called for, which are seldom found together, or in an equal degree, in the same teacher, and which can never be pursued with equal success in the same school-room. The elementary principles of knowledge, to be intelligible and interesting to the young, must be presented by a large use of the oral and simultaneous methods. The higher branches, especially all mathematical subjects, require patient application and habits of abstraction, on the part of the older pupils, which can with difficulty, if at all, be attained by many pupils, amid a multiplicity of distracting exercises, movements, and sounds. The recitations of this class of pupils, to be profitable and satisfactory must be conducted in a manner which requires time, discussion, and explanation, and the undivided attention both of pupils and teachers.

From the number of class and individual recitations, to be attended to during each half-day, these exercises are brief, hurried, and of little practical value. They consist, for the most part, of senseless repetitions of the words of a book. Instead of being the time and place, where the real business of teaching is done, where the ploughshare of interrogation is driven down into the acquirements of each pupil, and his ability to comprehend clearly, is cultivated and tested; where the difficult principles of each lesson are developed and illustrated, and additional information imparted; and the mind of the teacher brought in direct contact with the mind of each pupil, to arouse, interest, and direct its opening powers—instead of all this, and more, the brief period passed in recitation, consists, on the part of the teacher, of hearing each individual and class, in regular order and quick succession, repeat words from a book; and on the part of the pupils, of *saying their lessons*, as the operation is most significantly described by most teachers, when they summon the class to the stand. In the mean time the order of the school must be maintained, and the general business must go forward. Little children, without any authorized employment for their eyes and hands, and ever active curiosity, must be made to sit still, while every muscle is aching from suppressed activity; pens must be mended, copies set, arithmetical difficulties solved, excuses for tardiness or absence received, questions answered, whisperings allowed or suppressed, and more or less of extempore discipline administered. Were it not a most ruinous waste of precious time,—did it not involve the deadening, crushing, distorting, dwarfing of immortal faculties and noble sensibilities,—were it not an utter perversion of the noble objects for which schools are instituted, it would be difficult to conceive of a more diverting farce than an ordinary session of a large public school, whose chaotic and discordant elements have not been reduced to system by a proper classification. The teacher, at least the conscientious teacher, thinks it any thing but a farce to him. Compelled to hurry from one study to another, requiring a knowledge of methods altogether distinct,—from one recitation to another, equally

brief and unsatisfactory, one requiring a liveliness of manner, which he does not feel and can not assume, and the other closeness of attention and abstraction of thought, which he can not give amid the multiplicity and variety of cares,—from one case of discipline to another, pressing on him at the same time,—he goes through the same circuit, day after day, with a dizzy brain and aching heart, and brings his school to a close with a feeling, that with all his diligence and fidelity, he has accomplished but little good.

But great as are the evils of a want of proper classification of schools, arising from the causes already specified, these evils are aggravated by the almost universal practice of employing one teacher in summer, and another in winter, and different teachers each successive summer and winter. Whatever progress one teacher may make in bringing order out of the chaotic elements of a large district school, is arrested by the termination of his school term. His experience is not available to his successor, who does not come into the school until after an interval of weeks or months, and in the mean time the former teacher has left the town or State. The new teacher is a stranger to the children and their parents, is unacquainted with the system pursued by his predecessor, and has himself but little or no experience in the business: in consequence chaos comes back again, and the confusion is still worse confounded by the introduction of new books, for every teacher prefers to teach from the books in which he studied, or which he has been accustomed to teach, and many teachers can not teach profitably from any other. Weeks are thus passed, in which the school is going through the process of organization, and the pupils are becoming accustomed to the methods and requirements of a new teacher—some of them are put back, or made to retrace their studies in new books, while others are pushed forward into studies for which they are not prepared; and at the end of three or four months, the school relapses into chaos. There is a constant change, but no progress.

This want of system and this succession of new teachers go on from term to term, and year to year—a process which would involve any other interest in speedy and utter ruin, where there was not provision made for fresh material to be experimented upon, and counteracting influences at work to restore, or at least obviate the injury done. What other business of society could escape utter wreck, if conducted with such want of system,—with such constant disregard of the fundamental principle of the division of labor, and with a succession of new agents every three months, none of them trained to the details of the business, each new agent acting without any knowledge of the plan of his predecessor, or any well settled plan of his own! The public school is not an anomaly, an exception, among the great interests of society. Its success or failure depends on the existence or absence of certain conditions; and if complete failure does not follow the utter neglect of these conditions, it is because every term brings into the schools a fresh supply of children to be experimented upon, and sweeps away others beyond the reach of bad school instruction and discipline; and because the minds of some of these children are, for a portion of each day, left to the action of their own inherent forces, and the more kindly influences of nature, the family and society.

Among these conditions of success in the operation of a system of public schools, is such a classification of the scholars as shall bring a large number of similar age and attainments, at all times, and in every stage of their advancement, under teachers of the right qualifications, and shall enable these teachers to act upon numbers at once, for years in succession, and carry them all forward effectually together, in a regular course of instruction.

The great principle to be regarded in the classification, either of the schools of a town or district, or of scholars in the same school, is equality of attainments, which will generally include those of the same age. Those who have gone over substantially the same ground, or reached, or nearly reached the same point of attainment in several studies, should be put together, and constitute, whenever their number will authorize it, one school. These again should be arranged in different classes, for it is seldom practicable, even if it were ever desirable, to have but one class in every study in the same grade of school. Even in very large districts, where the scholars are promoted from a school of a lower grade to one of a higher, after being found qualified in certain studies, it

is seldom that any considerable number will have reached a common standard of scholarship in all their studies. The same pupil will have made very different progress, in different branches. He will stand higher in one and lower in another. By arranging scholars of the same general division in different classes, no pupil need be detained by companions who have made, or can make less progress, or be hurried over lessons and subjects in a superficial manner, to accommodate the more rapid advancement of others. Although equality of attainment should be regarded as the general principle, some regard should be paid to age, and other circumstances. A large boy of sixteen, from the deficiency of his early education, which may be his misfortune and not his fault, ought not to be put into a school or class of little children, although their attainments may be in advance of his. This step would mortify and discourage him. In such extreme cases, that arrangement will be best which will give the individual the greatest chance of improvement, with the least discomfort to himself, and hindrance to others. Great disparity of age in the same class, or the same school, is unfavorable to uniform and efficient discipline, and the adaptation of methods of teaching, and of motives to application and obedience. Some regard, too, should be had to the preferences of individuals, especially among the older pupils, and their probable destination in life. The mind comes into the requisition of study more readily, and works with higher results, when led onward by the heart; and the utility of any branch of study, its relations to future success in life, once clearly apprehended, becomes a powerful motive to effort.

It will not be necessary to pursue this subject further in this connection. The extent to which the gradation and classification of schools shall be carried, in any town, society or district, will depend, and the number of classes reduced in any school will depend on the compactness, numbers, or other circumstances of the population, and the number and age of the pupils, and the studies and methods of instruction in each school.

PROPERTY TAXATION.

Section 5. provides for the assessment of a property tax in each school society for the support of common schools. There is a pressing necessity for additional resources in each school district and society to maintain such common schools as the right education of the children of the State requires.

Without the means, at once certain and sufficient to provide good schoolhouses, good books, good teachers, and good supervision, for a sufficient number of schools, there can not be the highest degree of efficiency in any school law, however perfect in other respects. In my opinion, it is both just and expedient to provide liberally, but not exclusively, by State endowment, for the support of public instruction. As education is a want not felt by those who need it most, for themselves or their children,—as it is a duty which avarice and a short-sighted self-interest may disregard,—as it is a right which is inherent in every child, but which the child can not enforce, and as it is an interest both public and individual, which can not safely be neglected, it is unwise and unjust to leave it to the sense of parental duty, or the unequal and insufficient resources which individuals, and local authorities under the stimulus of ordinary motives, will provide. If it is thus left, there will be the educated few, and the uneducated many. This is the uniform testimony of all history. The leading object should be, for the State to stimulate and secure, but not supersede the proper efforts of parents and local authorities, and to see that the means thus provided are so applied as to make the advantages of education as equal as the varying circumstances of families and local communities will admit. If brought to the test of these principles, our present mode of supporting education will be found deficient. The schools are every where placed on a short allowance, and the children of the State are subjected to the most gross inequalities of school privileges. As the means realized out of permanent public funds have increased, the means provided by parents, towns, societies and districts, have diminished in nearly the same proportion. At first, towns and societies were released from the legal obligation to raise money by tax for school purposes; and with this obligation the habit of doing so, which commenced with our existence as a people, almost immediately ceased. The practice of parental contribution toward

the expenses of the school, for board of the teacher, fuel, and other incidental expenses, which was at first rendered absolutely necessary in order to continue the school in certain towns eleven months, and in all, at least six months in the year, was gradually relaxed, until in a majority of the districts the school is kept open just long enough, under a teacher at the lowest rate of compensation at which a young person without experience and without intending to make teaching a business, can be employed, to use up the public money derived from the state or town. Even the custom of "boarding" the teacher,—a custom better honored in the breach than in the observance,—is complied with so grudgingly and reluctantly by many families, that teachers with any degree of self-respect, will not long continue to subject themselves to the annoyance of this mode of begging their bread. The result is, that taxation for common school purposes, except to build and repair school-houses, and that on the most penurious scale, is almost entirely abandoned by parents, districts, and societies, and the right even is diputed and denied.

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL MONEY ACCORDING TO ATTENDANCE.

Section 6 contemplates the application of a new principle to the distribution among the several districts, of all money appropriated by the State for the support of common schools. This principle recognizes the number of children in actual attendance,—the number who actually attend school,—not the number which should be there,—as the true basis of distribution. The alteration herein proposed has been recommended by several of the most experienced school officers in the country. The commissioner appointed to prepare a common school code for the State of New York, (Hon. S. S. Randall,) introduces this feature with the following remarks:

"It is proposed that the public money shall be distributed by the town superintendent among the several reporting school districts in proportion to the *number of pupils actually attending* the schools therein, and the average length of time they shall have so attended, to be ascertained by the teacher's authenticated lists. The existing system of apportionment, according to the number of persons residing in the district between the ages of four and twenty-one years, not only seems unwarranted by any sound principle of distribution, but operates with gross inequality and injustice in very many sections of the country. In city and village and manufacturing districts, its inevitable effect is to enhance the amount of public money beyond all proportion to the educational wants of the population, at the expense of the rural districts which absolutely need it. The funds contributed and authorized by the State should be equitably and fairly distributed, with a view solely to the benefit of those who actually participate in the privileges which they are designed to secure. Why should a district, where the greater portion of the children under the age of twenty-one years are engaged in manufacturing establishments, or in attendance at private and select schools, or not attending any, receive a share of this fund corresponding, not to the number actually availing themselves during any portion of the year of the benefits of the school, but to the whole number residing in the district, whether they have ever attended a day or not, while in a neighboring district where, perhaps, every child is kept at school for six or eight months of every year, its distributive share is barely sufficient to warrant the payment of a sum adequate to secure the services of the lowest class of teachers? By the adoption of the proposed principle of distribution, a direct and very powerful inducement is held out for the regular and punctual attendance at the district school of the greatest number of children, and for the longest possible terms. The advantages to be derived from this equitable arrangement, far outweigh, in the judgment of the undersigned, all the objections which have been urged against it from the comparative facilities for regular attendance afforded by cities and villages over those of the country districts. In point of fact it is believed the average attendance in the latter is much greater, in proportion to the population, than the former; but even if the fact were otherwise, the greater the number of children in attendance, and the longer the average term of such attendance, whether in the city or country, the more liberal should be the allowance of the public money."

To obviate any injustice which the small districts might suffer, it is provided that every district shall receive a sum at least sufficient to keep a common school for the minimum length of time required by law. The operation of this rule in time, probably will be to diminish the number of very small districts.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS BY COUNTY INSPECTORS.

Section 17 authorizes the superintendent of common schools to appoint one or more persons to visit school societies and districts in different sections of the State, for the purpose of inspecting schools, lecturing on the subject of education, giving and receiving information and suggestions on all matters relating to the condition and improvement of the common schools. In addition to these duties, the persons thus appointed are authorized to grant to those teachers, with whose examination and success in the practical duties of the school-room as observed by them in their visits to the school they are satisfied, a certificate of qualification which shall be good for two years.

The expense to the State of this new feature of school inspection in our system can not exceed by this law three dollars to each society visited, or six hundred and thirty-one dollars, provided every society is reached. The State of Massachusetts appropriates annually twenty-five hundred dollars, in addition to the expense of the Board of Education, for the employment of two agents, "to labor among the people, arouse their attention, propose improvements in all the practical details of applying school money, of arranging districts, and of building houses, harmonize conflicting interests, converting private schools and academies either into public schools, or auxiliaries to them; attend public meetings, and conventions of teachers, advising with school committees, and visiting schools and aiding teachers, by their suggestions." Some of the objects here specified, and aimed at in the sections under consideration have been already realized in this State in a limited and imperfect manner, under the plan of lectures authorized by the resolution of 1850, commented on in my report for this and last year. The following suggestions were contained in my special report, accompanying the report of county inspectors of common schools, and are repeated as expressing my present views on the subject, and on the provisions of this section of the bill.

The want of an official authority,—the narrow sphere of action,—and the brief period of time which each county lecturer, with the compensation allowed, (which is barely sufficient to meet the expenses of travel,) will be able to give to the work, will, of course, make a broad difference in the result of this plan, from that of a system of county, or senatorial district inspection, which might easily be framed, and which should include the examination of all candidates for the office of teacher in a common school, of every grade,—the granting of certificates of qualification, graduated according to the attainments, experience, and practical knowledge of each candidate, and subject to be revoked by the authority granting the same, on evidence of inefficiency or unworthiness,—the personal visit at least twice a year to every school in the circuit, in which the examination shall be conducted both by the teacher and inspector, and by means of oral and written answers,—a personal knowledge of every teacher and every school,—a familiar conference for one day and evening, with all the teachers of a town, at least once during each season of schooling, and with all the teachers of a county, for one week, in each year,—at least one public address in each town, after due notice, in which the relative standing of the several towns in respect to school-houses, the attendance of children at school, the length of the time the several schools are taught during the year, the compensation paid to teachers, the degree of parental and public interest in the whole matter of education, and other particulars, shall be set forth and fortified by statements made by local committees, and extracts from the records of personal visits to the school,—a conference once a year with the several officers of the several towns and districts who may choose to come together, on due notice, for consultation respecting books, teachers, apparatus, &c.,—and an annual report to the State Superintendent, embracing their own doings, the condition of the schools in each town, the relative standing of the several towns in all the essential points in the condition of public schools, and plans and suggestions for improving the

organization, administration, instruction, and discipline of the schools. Until some such system of inspection can be put into operation, there will be no independent and competent tribunal for the examination of teachers; no responsibility to public opinion, pressing on local school committees and teachers; no persons constantly at hand sufficiently well informed and at leisure to devise and suggest plans of improvement, and coöperate in carrying out the same; no diffusion of new ideas; no benefiting by the experience of others; no rivalry for improvement; no progress.

Experience has shown, in every country, where a system of inspection, embracing the above features has been tried and which adds to the immediate supervision of a committee charged with the details of managing one or a small number of schools, the constant and regular visits of a person of known practical knowledge and skill in the business of education, and acting with an independence of local appointment and influence, although clothed with no other authority beyond that of giving friendly advice and coöperation, and of making public whatever of deficiency and of excellencies he may observe in his visits, that life and vigor are given to the administration of a school system. Children, teachers, committees, and parents, all share the impulse and the benefits of suggestions and hints thrown out in private conversation, and in the public addresses and reports which it is the duty of the inspector to make. No class of persons with us will be more anxious to receive the visits of an intelligent, devoted, and impartial inspector, or to welcome his counsel and coöperation, than faithful teachers.

CERTIFICATE OF QUALIFICATION TO TEACH.

The certificate or diploma of a school teacher should be worth something to him, and be at the same time an evidence to parents and local committees who may not have the requisite time and qualifications to examine and judge for themselves of the fitness of a person to classify, teach, and govern a school. It should, therefore, be granted by a committee, composed of one or more persons competent to judge, from having a practical and familiar knowledge of the subjects and points to which an examination should be directed, and above all, of what constitutes aptness to teach, and good methods of classification, instruction, and discipline. The person or committee should be so appointed and occupy such a local position as to remove the granting, withholding or annulling of a certificate above all suspicion of partiality or all fears of personal consequences. A diploma should mark the grade of school which the holder, after due examination, is judged qualified to teach, and for this purpose, there should be a classification of diplomas. The first granted, and the only one which should be granted to a candidate who has not had at the time some experience as an assistant in the practical duties of teaching, should entitle the holder to teach in the particular school for which he has, or is about to apply, and which should be specified in the diploma. Before granting such a diploma, the circumstances of the school should be known to the person or board granting the same. After a successful trial for one term in this school, an indorsement on the back of the certificate to this effect, might give that certificate currency in all the districts of the town, where committees and parents could themselves know or judge of his attainments, character, and skill as a teacher. A diploma of the second degree should not be granted until after a more rigorous and extended examination of the candidate has been held, and the evidence of at least one year of successful teaching can be adduced. This examination should cover all the studies pursued in common schools, of every grade, except in public high schools, in cities and large villages. This certificate should be good for any town in the county for which it is granted. After three years of successful teaching, teachers who have received the first and second certificates, may apply for the third, which should be granted only by a board composed of the inspectors or examiners in two or more counties. This certificate, until annulled, should exempt the holder from all local and annual examinations, and be good for every school, so far as entitling the holder to be paid out of any public funds. Every certificate should be based on satisfactory evidence of good moral charater, and unexceptionable conduct, and every teacher who proves himself

unworthy of the profession by criminal or immoral acts, should have his certificate publicly annulled. The great object is to prevent incompetent persons from gaining admission into the profession, and exclude such as prove themselves unworthy of its honors and compensation. Every board of examination should be composed of working school men,—of persons who have been practical teachers, or shown their interest in the improvement of schools, and the advancement of the profession by their works. Every examination should be conducted both by oral and written questions and answers,—should be held only at regular periods, which should be designated in the law, and the examination papers, and record of the doings of every meeting should be properly kept and preserved. The names of the successful candidates for certificates of the second and third degree, should be published annually, in the Report of the State Superintendent, as well as the names of those teachers whose certificates have been annulled for criminal or immoral conduct. A portion of the public school money in each town should be paid directly to the teacher, according to the grade of certificate he may hold.

TRUANCY—INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

There are other sections in the bill under consideration, of scarcely less importance than those already commented on—such as that empowering any city to pass all necessary ordinances and by-laws with suitable fines and penalties, and to make all necessary provision and arrangement concerning children between the ages of five and fifteen, who are growing up in truancy, without the benefit of the education provided in our common schools, and without any regular and lawful occupation. My views of the necessity of some more provident and efficient measures to reach and elevate and save this rapidly increasing class of children, have been repeatedly spread before the Legislature and the people of the State, and especially in the annual report of this department for 1850. In the Appendix to that document, an account will be found of the broad and thoroughly beneficial results which have followed the kind of action contemplated in Section 16 of this bill,—especially from the establishment of industrial schools in Aberdeen in Scotland.

TEXT-BOOKS.

The provisions in Sections 19 and 20 to secure a uniformity and adequate and economical supply of books in all the schools of the same county, will get rid of one of the great hindrances to improvement in the schools. Touching, as it does, the pockets of the people, there is no lack of complaint from every quarter of the State of the evil of a perpetual change of text-books. With a few remarks on other topics, I will bring this report to a close.

The Superintendent's Report for 1852, closes with the following remarks on the origin and influence of

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Another year's observation and inquiry confirm the opinion I have before expressed, as to the origin, and influence of private or select schools. They grow, in most instances, out of the deplorable condition of the common schools—the small, dilapidated, uncomfortable and unhealthy school-house—the neglect of all the appliances to secure modesty of behavior, and correct personal habits in children—the employment of unqualified teachers—the constant change of even good teachers, when such are employed for a season—the superficial attainments and limited course of instruction embraced in a majority of the district schools: for these and similar causes, those parents who know what a good education is, or feel the want of such an education in themselves, and are determined to provide it for their children at any expense, withdraw their children from the district school, and set up or patronize existing private schools. This is the origin of nine-tenths of the small primary schools, and even of many of the academies of the State, and in the mean time, the public school, deprived of the children and influence of those families, and left to them who are content with things as they were forty years ago, or who believe that a munificent

school fund will educate children without the aid of good school-houses, teachers who are teachers, and the supervision which every other department of business receives—languishes, or at least remains stationary. I have no hesitation in saying that the extent to which private schools of different grades are now patronized by wealthy and educated families, is at once the most satisfactory proof of the low condition of the public schools, and the most formidable hindrance to their rapid and permanent improvement. It draws off the means and the parental and public interest which are requisite to make good public schools, and converts them, in some places avowedly, into schools for the poor, as though in a state which justly boasts of its equal privileges, there was one kind of education, or one class of schools for the rich, and another for the poor.

It classifies society at the root, by assorting children according to the wealth, education, or outward circumstances of their parents, into different schools; and educates children of the same neighborhood differently and unequaly. These differences of culture, as to manners, morals, and intellectual tastes and habits, begun in childhood, and strengthened by differences in occupation, which are determined mainly by early education, open a real chasm between members of the same society, broad and deep, which equal laws, and political theories can not close. True it is that many persons who were doomed to an inferior and imperfect school education, make up for these disadvantages in after life by force of native talent and self-training; and many others who enjoyed the highest privileges of moral and intellectual improvement at school, are ruined by the false notions of superiority engendered and fostered by private schools.

It is my firm conviction, that the common school system of Connecticut can be made not only to occupy the place it once did in the regards of all men, and become the main reliance of all classes of the community for the elementary education of children—but that the schools established under that system can be made so good, within the range of studies which it is desirable to embrace in them, that wealth can not purchase better advantages in private schools, and at the same time be so cheap as to be within reach of the poorest child. It will be a bright day for the State, and a pledge of our future progress and harmony as a people, when the children of the rich and poor are found more generally than they now are, side by side in the same school, and on the same play-ground, without knowing or caring for any other distinction than such as industry, capacity, or virtue may make. I have no expectation of seeing this better state of things realized, until the support of the common schools is made to rest in part on the property of the whole community, and until the causes which now make private schools to some extent necessary, are removed. As long as the majority of a school society or town are content with a single school in each district, for children of every age, of both sexes, and in every variety of study, and as long as the majority of a district are content to pack away their children in such school-houses as may be found in more than two-thirds of all the districts of the State; to employ one teacher in summer and another in winter, and not the same teacher for two summers or two winters in succession; and to employ, for even the shortest period, teachers who have no experience, and no special training for their delicate and difficult duties; so long will it be the duty of such parents as know what a good education is, or have felt the want of it in themselves, and are able and willing to make sacrifices to secure it for their children, to provide or patronize private schools. But it is no excuse for such, because their own children are provided with attractive, commodious, and healthy school-houses, with well trained and experienced teachers, and good books, to go to the district school meeting to vote down every proposition to build a new school-house, or to repair a dilapidated, repulsive, unhealthy old one—to supply the same with fuel, and all proper appendages and accommodations—to employ a good teacher for a suitable period of the year—or to purchase a small library, by which the blessings and advantages of good books may be made available to the poor as well as the rich. The progress of school improvement, dependent as it is on so many influences and complex interests, is slow and difficult enough under the most favorable circumstances; but when it is opposed, or even not aided, not only by those into whose souls the iron of avarice has entered, and by others, who, not having enjoyed or felt the want of superior advantages themselves, are satisfied that what was good

enough for them forty years ago is good enough for their children now, but by those who have shown their opinion of the necessity of improvement by withdrawing their own children from the common schools, it is a hopeless, despairing work indeed.

In the "*Eighth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools*," submitted to the General Assembly in May, 1853.

SUMMARY OF PROCEEDINGS OF SUPERINTENDENT, 1852–3.

Institutes or Conventions of Teachers have been held in ten different towns, located in the eight counties, each Institute continuing in session five days, or for an aggregate term of fifty days, and attended by upwards of one thousand teachers of our common schools. One hundred and eighty-three teachers have been found willing to incur expense and devote time to improve the opportunities of professional training provided by the State, at New Britain. In nine different localities teachers have associated themselves together under either a town or county organization, to discuss questions relating to the classification, instruction, and discipline of their schools. Two hundred and seventy-five addresses have been delivered, to my knowledge, principally in the evening, to parents, teachers and youth, who were disposed to come together in more than one hundred different societies, on public notice, on topics connected with the condition and improvement of popular education in the State. Upwards of forty gatherings of scholars and teachers from two or more schools, have been held in as many societies, for public exercises calculated to create an interest in the ordinary operations of the public schools. Beside a large number of reports, addresses, and other printed matter relating to libraries, school-houses, and schools, which have been distributed gratuitously among school officers, teachers, and parents, more than the usual space has been given to the discussion of these subjects in the public press. In aiding in these and other ways, and especially by personal interviews and written communications with school officers and teachers, who have called on me for advice and coöperation, as to building school-houses, the construction to be placed on certain requirements of the school-law, the classification and regulation of schools, the establishment of libraries, the selection of apparatus, the forfeiture of school money, and the settlement of local differences before they had ripened into neighborhood quarrels, I have labored to carry out the object of my appointment. In the discharge of these duties, I have written during the past year over five hundred letters, and had more than that number of personal consultations.

These labors have been cheerfully performed at all times, without regard to office hours, and although they have been abundant, and it is believed, effective, they have made, from their very nature, but little public display.

The legitimate results of these and similar labors continued through the past eight years, are now beginning to appear in improved school-houses, with their attractive appearance, large play-grounds, and convenient furniture,—in a gradation of schools in the cities and large villages, and especially in the organization of common schools of a higher order,—in the permanent employment and adequate compensation of well qualified teachers,—in the more systematic discharge of the important duties of examining candidates for teachers, prescribing textbooks, visiting schools, and preparing reports on their condition and improvement by school visitors,—and in the more active, intelligent and liberal interest exhibited by parents, and the public generally, in the whole subject of education. As an unerring index of this interest, it may be mentioned that more than one hundred thousand dollars have been appropriated by direct tax for common school purposes, principally by districts, in less than twenty school societies—more than four times the amount raised in the whole State in any one year prior to 1846.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL.

The third year of the operations of the State Normal School, at New Britain, closed on the 15th of April last, under the most gratifying indications of present and future success and usefulness. Five hundred and nineteen pupils have

been connected with the institution since it opened on the 13th of May, 1850—representing one hundred and twenty out of the two hundred and twenty-one school societies. All of these pupils were benefited to some extent by the instruction of the school, and the opportunities of observation and practice enjoyed there; and they have since been employed in more than six hundred different school districts scattered through more than two-thirds of all the towns, and more than half of the school societies of the State. The officers of the Normal School, Rev. T. D. P. Stone, and Prof. D. N. Camp, in addition to their labors at New Britain, have assisted in conducting thirty Institutes, or Conventions of Teachers in different counties, and have addressed evening meetings of teachers and parents in more than one hundred school societies. In these ways the influence of the Normal School has been widely, strongly, and directly felt on the cause of educational improvement of the State, and has thus far met all reasonable expectations and opinions of its friends. It is believed that no institution in the country has in the same length of time, reached more schools, teachers, and parents, by its effects.

At the close of the fall term, in November, 1852, Mr. Stone resigned the office of Associate Principal, and John D. Philbrick, Principal of the Quincy Grammar School, Boston, was appointed in his place. No man can labor more indefatigably and enthusiastically for the interest of the institution, or the cause of school improvement in the State, than did the late Associate Principal, from the first hour of his appointment; and the Trustees accepted his resignation, because he believed that the best good of the school would be promoted thereby, and that he could work more successfully in other fields of labor. In his successor, Mr. Philbrick, the trustees have found a teacher who was willing to leave a more lucrative, and in point of residence, a more desirable post, for one in which he and his friends believed he would have a wider field of usefulness. He has enjoyed and improved the advantages of a collegiate education, his experience as a teacher for fifteen years has been exclusively in common or public schools, from the district school to the highest grade of common schools known in New England, and he has taken an active part in coöperating with teachers in efforts to improve the profession to which he has devoted himself, and with the friends of popular education generally, in advancing the standard of common school education in New England and in the whole country. We welcome him to Connecticut as an accomplished teacher, and a willing and able laborer in the educational field.

Prof. Camp continues his connection with the school, and no teacher in the State is more favorably known, or more universally beloved by every teacher and friend of common schools. Educated in these schools, and brought every year for thirteen years past, into frequent communication with school officers and teachers at educational meetings, he understands thoroughly, both their wants, and the best means of supplying them. He has taken part in the instruction of thirty Institutes, fifteen of which have been under his sole charge. At these Institutes, twenty-five hundred teachers have been present. He has also addressed forty county associations, and as many town associations of teachers, besides meetings of parents and teachers, in over one hundred school societies. He was one of the founders in 1846, and has attended every meeting since, of the State Teachers' Association. He was an early advocate for the establishment of a Normal School, and is now devoting himself with his whole heart and strength, to its interests.

Under the administration and instruction of two such teachers as Mr. Philbrick as Principal, and Prof. Camp as Assistant—both of them judicious and indefatigable, as well as experienced and eminently successful in every grade of school known in our school system, and both enthusiastically devoted to the advancement of their profession and the improvement of common schools, as evinced by their abundant labors, and by their declining more lucrative situations for the sake of laboring in the field which they now occupy—the friends of our State Normal School need have no misgivings of its continued prosperity and ever enduring usefulness.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

During the past year ten Institutes or Conventions of Teachers have been

held at as many different places,—two more than was required by law, and toward the expense of which no allowance was made by the State,—with an aggregate attendance of over one thousand teachers. To Rev. T. D. P. Stone, the late Principal of the Normal School, and Prof. Camp, who cheerfully devoted seven weeks of their vacations to these Institutes, and in other ways have aided the objects of my appointment, I would make this public acknowledgment of my personal and official obligations. Without their gratuitous services, (for the compensation was barely sufficient to meet their traveling expenses,) these meetings of teachers could not have been held with the very small pecuniary provision made for them by the State.

The general opinion as to the utility of these Institutes in their two-fold operation on the profession, and the community generally, has been confirmed by another year's experience. They have enabled even experienced teachers to refresh their memories as to the leading principles and facts of the several studies usually pursued in our district schools, by rapid reviews, and in some instances, it may be safely said, by new and better methods of presenting the same to their pupils. They have brought the young and inexperienced teacher to profit in the work of self-improvement by hints, suggestions, and practical illustrations, from those who have acquired skill and reputation by years of laborious and successful experience. They have stimulated the older and the best teachers of the State, to renewed and more zealous efforts to perform their duties with even greater success. They have helped to awaken and diffuse a great degree of mental activity and professional feeling in the whole body of teachers. Beyond the circle of the profession, for whose special benefit they are held, these Institutes have interested a large number of citizens, parents, and young people, in the subject of education, the principles of school architecture, methods of teaching, the government of children in the family and school, and other leading features of school organization, and administration.

Since their first establishment in this State in 1839, eighty-two Institutes have been held in fifty-eight different school societies, and forty-five different towns. These societies and towns embrace nearly all the bright spots in the educational map of Connecticut. These are the towns in which the most has been done to improve the district school-houses, commence a system of graded schools, increase the wages paid to district school teachers, continue the services of well qualified teachers from term to term, and from year to year in the same school, introduce a uniformity of text-books, and infuse into the administration of the system an active and intelligent parental interest. So important does the Superintendent regard the collateral and attending advantages of Institutes, in disseminating throughout the community more enlightened views as to the qualities and qualifications which constitute a good teacher, and the conditions of success in the operation of a school system, that he has ever regarded them as an indispensable instrumentality in the work of local school improvement, and has aimed to hold them each year in towns where they had not been held before, until every town and school society should be reached by their influence. To derive the full benefit of this class of meetings, to secure the continued attendance of the older as well as the younger teachers, and to make them both popular and profitable to the people, the mode of conducting them must be varied from time to time, special attention must be given at each Institute to some one subject of leading interest, and the services of eminent teachers and popular lecturers must be secured.

The law should be so amended as to enable the Superintendent to hold as many Institutes as there shall be reasonable assurance given of an attendance of at least forty teachers at each, for at least five consecutive days, at places where the people are willing to coöperate with the teachers in diminishing the cost of board and the incidental expenses of a session, without regard to county lines or seasons of the year.

The counties differ from each other so much in territorial extent, population, number of schools, and facilities of travel, as to present unequal claims and facilities for the privileges of an Institute. If the smallest county should have one each year, the largest is entitled to two. In some instances the time and expense of getting to an Institute within the limits of a county, are greater than to traverse the breadth of the State.

In addition to the county Institutes, the Superintendent should be authorized to appoint similar meetings of shorter duration, at such times and with such exercises as will be most convenient and most profitable to teachers in cities.

EDUCATIONAL LECTURES.

During the last year, two hundred and eighty-three evening lectures have been delivered by myself and others, in more than one hundred different societies, on topics connected with the organization and administration of our school system, and the classification, instruction, and discipline of public schools. By these and similar lectures, delivered in preceding years, an impulse of a most salutary and far-reaching character has been given to the cause of school improvement, and the results are even now visible in many societies in the more enlightened and vigorous action of school districts, officers, and teachers. The cost of these lectures to the State for the year ending in May last, will be less than three hundred dollars.

For their cordial coöperation in carrying out this plan of educational lectures during the last three years, I would express my personal and official obligations to William S. Baker, now of Bristol, Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, at the time Principal of the Public High School, at Hartford, Rev. E. B. Huntington, Principal of the Public High School of Waterbury, Rev. T. D. P. Stone, now Principal of the Normal Institute and High School at Norwich, John D. Philbrick, Esq., and Prof. Camp, of the State Normal School, Rev. Merrill Richardson, of Terryville, Rev. J. S. Whittlesey, of New Britain, Rev. Owen Street, of Ansonia, Rev. Albert Smith, of Vernon, Rev. Dr. Chapin, of Glastenbury, Rev. Dr. Bushnell, and Rev. Dr. Clark, of Hartford, and Rev. Dr. Edwards, of New London. With the aid of these gentlemen, more than nine hundred addresses have been delivered in the State since my appointment as Superintendent of Common Schools.

SCHOOL CELEBRATIONS.

In connection with the plan of public lectures, in several towns, meetings of the teachers, with their scholars, and the parents of the children have been held with the most gratifying results. For this class of meetings I have been principally indebted to that excellent teacher and practical lecturer, Mr. William S. Baker, now Principal of the High School in Bristol.

CONNECTICUT COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL.

The publication of the "*Connecticut Common School Journal*" has been continued during the year. At the close of the present year, the charge of this periodical,—which I deem of great practical importance to the spread of sound educational intelligence, and as a depository of all documents relating to the history, condition, and improvement of our own schools,—will be committed to the State Teachers' Association.

COMMON SCHOOL APPARATUS.

Under the resolution of the last Assembly, the Directors of the State Prison have set apart the labor of twenty convicts, who are employed under the direction of Mr. Dwight Holbrook, in the manufacture of apparatus and implements to be used for purposes of illustrating subjects taught in common schools. From the report of the Directors it appears,—"At the end of the fiscal year, and at the close of each successive year during the existence of this contract, the State will come into possession of one hundred and eighty sets of the apparatus per year, as the compensation for the labor of said convicts, at a cost of twenty per cent. below its market value. This apparatus, the Directors have as yet taken no steps to dispose of, believing that the State has now an opportunity which it will gladly improve, to apply the earnings of the Prison, beyond the demands for ordinary and extraordinary repairs, in promoting the efficiency of instruction in our common schools, and thus both directly and indirectly diminish the causes which fill our prisons with inmates. There is but one opinion among our most enlightened educators and teachers, as to the manifold uses to which such

articles of apparatus as comprise the set can be applied, in making more clear to the comprehension of the young, difficult processes not only in the early stages of education, but in illustrating the most useful and interesting principles in the entire range of common school studies. Every article of the apparatus manufactured under the resolution of the last General Assembly, is intended to employ the eye and the hand of the pupil, and thus make the hours of study more pleasant, the ideas gained more clear and practical, and the impression on the memory more vivid, and more easily recalled.

"The Directors having in view the importance to every citizen of the State of all improvements in our common schools, and being mindful of the earnest effort which is being made to elevate and improve the condition of such schools, and to make them free and accessible to all who will avail themselves of their advantages, thereby putting it within the power of the humblest individuals to obtain for their children the advantages of a good, thorough, common school education; and being also of the opinion that no better or more appropriate use can be made of such part of the surplus earnings of said Prison as can be safely appropriated for that purpose, than to apply the same to promote the education of the children and youth of our State, thereby removing, as we humbly believe, one great cause of much of the crime that exists in our community. We therefore recommend, that the General Assembly do authorize the Warden of said Prison to furnish sets of said apparatus to the several districts in this State, at a discount of twenty-five per cent. from the actual cost. And that he be also authorized to furnish the same to towns when they will purchase a sufficient quantity for all of the schools in their respective towns, at a price fifty per cent. less than the actual cost; *provided*, that the donations to the districts and towns in common school apparatus, shall not exceed in amount, in any one year, more than one thousand dollars of the surplus earings of said Prison; said districts and towns to be supplied with said apparatus in the order of their applications."

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

In July last, (1852,) I found my health so much impaired as to require, in the opinion of my physicians, the immediate and entire cessation of all mental labor, and the benefit of a voyage. I accordingly resigned my official connection with the Schools of the State; but the Trustees unanimously and without any solicitation or wish expressed on my part, instead of accepting my resignation, gave me a leave of absence, with a request that I would resume my labors here as soon as the state of my health should permit. The voyage proved more restorative than was anticipated even by my physicians; and finding myself in Europe amid interesting educational institutions, with access to officers connected with the administration of systems of public instruction, I availed myself of my brief stay to extend inquiries which it had been my privilege to institute during a tour in Europe in 1835 and 1836, and to collect additional documents, respecting the means and condition of popular education generally, and especially upon institutions and agencies for the professional training of teachers in those countries, where these important subjects had received most attention.

The results of my observations and study of official documents, will be embodied in a "*Report on Public Education in Europe*," especially on a class of elementary schools corresponding to our common schools; on industrial and reform schools intended for idle, vagrant, and neglected children before they have become convicted criminals; on institutions for communicating a practical knowledge of science as applied to agriculture and the mechanic arts, and on seminaries and agencies for the professional training and improvement of teachers.

To these results I am able, by permission of the gentlemen named, to add freely from the elaborate and valuable reports of Prof. Calvin E. Stowe, D. D., to the Legislature of Ohio, in 1837; of President Alexander Dallas Bache, LL. D., to the Trustees of the Girard College of Orphans in Philadelphia, in 1839; of Hon. Horace Mann, LL. D., to the Massachusetts Board of Education, in 1846, and of Joseph Kay, Esq., Traveling Bachelor of the University of Oxford, in 1850, on the subjects treated of in my report. Without claiming any-

the expenses of the school, for board of the teacher, fuel, and other incidental expenses, which was at first rendered absolutely necessary in order to continue the school in certain towns eleven months, and in all, at least six months in the year, was gradually relaxed, until in a majority of the districts the school is kept open just long enough, under a teacher at the lowest rate of compensation at which a young person without experience and without intending to make teaching a business, can be employed, to use up the public money derived from the state or town. Even the custom of "boarding" the teacher,—a custom better honored in the breach than in the observance,—is complied with so grudgingly and reluctantly by many families, that teachers with any degree of self-respect, will not long continue to subject themselves to the annoyance of this mode of begging their bread. The result is, that taxation for common school purposes, except to build and repair school-houses, and that on the most penurious scale, is almost entirely abandoned by parents, districts, and societies, and the right even is diputed and denied.

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL MONEY ACCORDING TO ATTENDANCE.

Section 6 contemplates the application of a new principle to the distribution among the several districts, of all money appropriated by the State for the support of common schools. This principle recognizes the number of children in actual attendance,—the number who actually attend school,—not the number which should be there,—as the true basis of distribution. The alteration herein proposed has been recommended by several of the most experienced school officers in the country. The commissioner appointed to prepare a common school code for the State of New York, (Hon. S. S. Randall,) introduces this feature with the following remarks:

"It is proposed that the public money shall be distributed by the town superintendent among the several reporting school districts in proportion to the *number of pupils actually attending* the schools therein, and the average length of time they shall have so attended, to be ascertained by the teacher's authenticated lists. The existing system of apportionment, according to the number of persons residing in the district between the ages of four and twenty-one years, not only seems unwarranted by any sound principle of distribution, but operates with gross inequality and injustice in very many sections of the country. In city and village and manufacturing districts, its inevitable effect is to enhance the amount of public money beyond all proportion to the educational wants of the population, at the expense of the rural districts which absolutely need it. The funds contributed and authorized by the State should be equitably and fairly distributed, with a view solely to the benefit of those who actually participate in the privileges which they are designed to secure. Why should a district, where the greater portion of the children under the age of twenty-one years are engaged in manufacturing establishments, or in attendance at private and select schools, or not attending any, receive a share of this fund corresponding, not to the number actually availing themselves during any portion of the year of the benefits of the school, but to the whole number residing in the district, whether they have ever attended a day or not, while in a neighboring district where, perhaps, every child is kept at school for six or eight months of every year, its distributive share is barely sufficient to warrant the payment of a sum adequate to secure the services of the lowest class of teachers? By the adoption of the proposed principle of distribution, a direct and very powerful inducement is held out for the regular and punctual attendance at the district school of the greatest number of children, and for the longest possible terms. The advantages to be derived from this equitable arrangement, far outweigh, in the judgment of the undersigned, all the objections which have been urged against it from the comparative facilities for regular attendance afforded by cities and villages over those of the country districts. In point of fact it is believed the average attendance in the latter is much greater, in proportion to the population, than the former; but even if the fact were otherwise, the greater the number of children in attendance, and the longer the average term of such attendance, whether in the city or country, the more liberal should be the allowance of the public money."

To obviate any injustice which the small districts might suffer, it is provided that every district shall receive a sum at least sufficient to keep a common school for the minimum length of time required by law. The operation of this rule in time, probably will be to diminish the number of very small districts.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS BY COUNTY INSPECTORS.

Section 17 authorizes the superintendent of common schools to appoint one or more persons to visit school societies and districts in different sections of the State, for the purpose of inspecting schools, lecturing on the subject of education, giving and receiving information and suggestions on all matters relating to the condition and improvement of the common schools. In addition to these duties, the persons thus appointed are authorized to grant to those teachers, with whose examination and success in the practical duties of the school-room as observed by them in their visits to the school they are satisfied, a certificate of qualification which shall be good for two years.

The expense to the State of this new feature of school inspection in our system can not exceed by this law three dollars to each society visited, or six hundred and thirty-one dollars, provided every society is reached. The State of Massachusetts appropriates annually twenty-five hundred dollars, in addition to the expense of the Board of Education, for the employment of two agents, "to labor among the people, arouse their attention, propose improvements in all the practical details of applying school money, of arranging districts, and of building houses, harmonize conflicting interests, converting private schools and academies either into public schools, or auxiliaries to them; attend public meetings, and conventions of teachers, advising with school committees, and visiting schools and aiding teachers, by their suggestions." Some of the objects here specified, and aimed at in the sections under consideration have been already realized in this State in a limited and imperfect manner, under the plan of lectures authorized by the resolution of 1850, commented on in my report for this and last year. The following suggestions were contained in my special report, accompanying the report of county inspectors of common schools, and are repeated as expressing my present views on the subject, and on the provisions of this section of the bill.

The want of an official authority,—the narrow sphere of action,—and the brief period of time which each county lecturer, with the compensation allowed, (which is barely sufficient to meet the expenses of travel,) will be able to give to the work, will, of course, make a broad difference in the result of this plan, from that of a system of county, or senatorial district inspection, which might easily be framed, and which should include the examination of all candidates for the office of teacher in a common school, of every grade,—the granting of certificates of qualification, graduated according to the attainments, experience, and practical knowledge of each candidate, and subject to be revoked by the authority granting the same, on evidence of inefficiency or unworthiness,—the personal visit at least twice a year to every school in the circuit, in which the examination shall be conducted both by the teacher and inspector, and by means of oral and written answers,—a personal knowledge of every teacher and every school,—a familiar conference for one day and evening, with all the teachers of a town, at least once during each season of schooling, and with all the teachers of a county, for one week, in each year,—at least one public address in each town, after due notice, in which the relative standing of the several towns in respect to school-houses, the attendance of children at school, the length of the time the several schools are taught during the year, the compensation paid to teachers, the degree of parental and public interest in the whole matter of education, and other particulars, shall be set forth and fortified by statements made by local committees, and extracts from the records of personal visits to the school,—a conference once a year with the several officers of the several towns and districts who may choose to come together, on due notice, for consultation respecting books, teachers, apparatus, &c.,—and an annual report to the State Superintendent, embracing their own doings, the condition of the schools in each town, the relative standing of the several towns in all the essential points in the condition of public schools, and plans and suggestions for improving the

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organization, administration, instruction, and discipline of the schools. Until some such system of inspection can be put into operation, there will be no independent and competent tribunal for the examination of teachers; no responsibility to public opinion, pressing on local school committees and teachers; no persons constantly at hand sufficiently well informed and at leisure to devise and suggest plans of improvement, and coöperate in carrying out the same; no diffusion of new ideas; no benefiting by the experience of others; no rivalry for improvement; no progress.

Experience has shown, in every country, where a system of inspection, embracing the above features has been tried and which adds to the immediate supervision of a committee charged with the details of managing one or a small number of schools, the constant and regular visits of a person of known practical knowledge and skill in the business of education, and acting with an independence of local appointment and influence, although clothed with no other authority beyond that of giving friendly advice and coöperation, and of making public whatever of deficiency and of excellencies he may observe in his visits, that life and vigor are given to the administration of a school system. Children, teachers, committees, and parents, all share the impulse and the benefits of suggestions and hints thrown out in private conversation, and in the public addresses and reports which it is the duty of the inspector to make. No class of persons with us will be more anxious to receive the visits of an intelligent, devoted, and impartial inspector, or to welcome his counsel and coöperation, than faithful teachers.

CERTIFICATE OF QUALIFICATION TO TEACH.

The certificate or diploma of a school teacher should be worth something to him, and be at the same time an evidence to parents and local committees who may not have the requisite time and qualifications to examine and judge for themselves of the fitness of a person to classify, teach, and govern a school. It should, therefore, be granted by a committee, composed of one or more persons competent to judge, from having a practical and familiar knowledge of the subjects and points to which an examination should be directed, and above all, of what constitutes aptness to teach, and good methods of classification, instruction, and discipline. The person or committee should be so appointed and occupy such a local position as to remove the granting, withholding or annulling of a certificate above all suspicion of partiality or all fears of personal consequences. A diploma should mark the grade of school which the holder, after due examination, is judged qualified to teach, and for this purpose, there should be a classification of diplomas. The first granted, and the only one which should be granted to a candidate who has not had at the time some experience as an assistant in the practical duties of teaching, should entitle the holder to teach in the particular school for which he has, or is about to apply, and which should be specified in the diploma. Before granting such a diploma, the circumstances of the school should be known to the person or board granting the same. After a successful trial for one term in this school, an indorsement on the back of the certificate to this effect, might give that certificate currency in all the districts of the town, where committees and parents could themselves know or judge of his attainments, character, and skill as a teacher. A diploma of the second degree should not be granted until after a more rigorous and extended examination of the candidate has been held, and the evidence of at least one year of successful teaching can be adduced. This examination should cover all the studies pursued in common schools, of every grade, except in public high schools, in cities and large villages. This certificate should be good for any town in the county for which it is granted. After three years of successful teaching, teachers who have received the first and second certificates, may apply for the third, which should be granted only by a board composed of the inspectors or examiners in two or more counties. This certificate, until annulled, should exempt the holder from all local and annual examinations, and be good for every school, so far as entitling the holder to be paid out of any public funds. Every certificate should be based on satisfactory evidence of good moral charater, and unexceptionable conduct, and every teacher who proves himself

unworthy of the profession by criminal or immoral acts, should have his certificate publicly annulled. The great object is to prevent incompetent persons from gaining admission into the profession, and exclude such as prove themselves unworthy of its honors and compensation. Every board of examination should be composed of working school men,—of persons who have been practical teachers, or shown their interest in the improvement of schools, and the advancement of the profession by their works. Every examination should be conducted both by oral and written questions and answers,—should be held only at regular periods, which should be designated in the law, and the examination papers, and record of the doings of every meeting should be properly kept and preserved. The names of the successful candidates for certificates of the second and third degree, should be published annually, in the Report of the State Superintendent, as well as the names of those teachers whose certificates have been annulled for criminal or immoral conduct. A portion of the public school money in each town should be paid directly to the teacher, according to the grade of certificate he may hold.

TRUANCY—INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

There are other sections in the bill under consideration, of scarcely less importance than those already commented on—such as that empowering any city to pass all necessary ordinances and by-laws with suitable fines and penalties, and to make all necessary provision and arrangement concerning children between the ages of five and fifteen, who are growing up in truancy, without the benefit of the education provided in our common schools, and without any regular and lawful occupation. My views of the necessity of some more provident and efficient measures to reach and elevate and save this rapidly increasing class of children, have been repeatedly spread before the Legislature and the people of the State, and especially in the annual report of this department for 1850. In the Appendix to that document, an account will be found of the broad and thoroughly beneficial results which have followed the kind of action contemplated in Section 16 of this bill,—especially from the establishment of industrial schools in Aberdeen in Scotland.

TEXT-BOOKS.

The provisions in Sections 19 and 20 to secure a uniformity and adequate and economical supply of books in all the schools of the same county, will get rid of one of the great hindrances to improvement in the schools. Touching, as it does, the pockets of the people, there is no lack of complaint from every quarter of the State of the evil of a perpetual change of text-books. With a few remarks on other topics, I will bring this report to a close.

The Superintendent's Report for 1852, closes with the following remarks on the origin and influence of

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Another year's observation and inquiry confirm the opinion I have before expressed, as to the origin, and influence of private or select schools. They grow, in most instances, out of the deplorable condition of the common schools—the small, dilapidated, uncomfortable and unhealthy school-house—the neglect of all the appliances to secure modesty of behavior, and correct personal habits in children—the employment of unqualified teachers—the constant change of even good teachers, when such are employed for a season—the superficial attainments and limited course of instruction [illegible] in a majority of the district schools: for these [illegible] who know what a good education is, or feel [illegible] themselves, and are determined to provide it [illegible] their children from the dis[illegible] schools. This is the or[illegible] of many of the acad[illegible] prived of the chil[illegible] ontent with th[illegible] ficient

gent coöperation of parents, with teachers and committees in the management and instruction of schools. It will give notice of all local and general meetings of associations relating to public schools, and publish any communications respecting their proceedings. It will give information of what is doing in other states and countries, with regard to popular education, and in every way help keep alive a spirit of efficient and prudent action in behalf of the physical, intellectual, and moral improvement of the rising and all future generations in the State.

The numbers thus far published of the current volume do not contain the usual variety of such a periodical, being devoted almost exclusively to a discourse on the life and character of the Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, and to documents illustrative of his services to the cause of deaf-mute instruction, and to the American Asylum for the education of deaf and dumb persons at Hartford. Feeling that the best lights of my own mind have been drawn and fed from his wise counsels, and the best purposes of my own heart have been strengthened by the beauty of his daily life, I could not neglect this opportunity of placing before school officers and teachers this memorial of a wise educator, and an every-day Christian gentleman. The name of Gallaudet will ever constitute a portion of the moral treasure of Connecticut. The numbers of the Journal devoted to this tribute to his memory will be presented to such members of the Assembly as will apply to this office.

In addition to the publication of a monthly periodical, devoted exclusively to the promotion of educational improvement, no pains has been spared to interest the conductors of our newspaper press generally to introduce into their columns, reports and discussions on the condition and improvement of our common schools, and other institutions and means of popular education. In no one year has so much educational matter been spread through these channels before the people of the State. For the uniform courtesy, with which all applications, on my part for giving publicity to notices for Institutes and lectures, have been met, I wish to make this public acknowledgment. Without the cordial and general coöperation of the press of the State, the process of school improvement will be slow indeed.

The Superintendent thus speaks of his operations in Teachers' Institutes, Lectures, &c., in his "Seventh Annual Report, submitted May, 1852."

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

During the year, nine Institutes or Conventions of Teachers have been held in different parts of the State, one more than was required by law, and for which no pecuniary aid was received from the State. The aggregate attendance of teachers at the nine Institutes, was about nine hundred. Each Institute was opened by a public lecture on the Monday evening of the week for which it was appointed, and continued in session until the close of the Friday evening following. The exercises during the day were devoted to the familiar exposition of the best modes of classifying, governing, and teaching our common schools. At each Institute the evenings were devoted to lectures and discussions on topics connected with the improvement of common schools, and other means of popular education in Connecticut, intended to interest parents, children, and the community generally, as well as teachers.

Before dismissing this subject, I beg leave to remark:—

1. The value of this class of meetings, both to teachers and the communities where they are held, is universally acknowledged, and not an intimation has reached me from any quarter, that they should he abandoned.

2. My connection with Institutes every year for more than twelve years has satisfied me that to secure the continued interest and attendance of teachers in this class of meetings, the exercises must be instructive and varied; the persons conducting the exercises and delivering lectures, must have a reputation which will command in advance the confidence of the best teachers; the time and place for each Institute must be judiciously chosen, and the wants of the schools at particular periods of the year must be consulted.

3. The appropriation now made, viz., only eighteen dollars on the average, to secure assistance in instruction and lectures at each Institute, with an allowance for printing circulars, and the travel of the Superintendent, is altogether inadequate—thereby imposing a heavy pecuniary burden on the Superintendent, and subjecting public-spirited individuals, who have no private or professional interest in the improvement of the schools, to great sacrifices of time for the common benefit of the State.

4. Interesting and profitable as these Institutes have already proved to teachers, the schools, and the community, they can be made still more interesting and profitable, and a larger attendance of teachers can be secured during each year, and more places can be reached and blessed by their influence, if the Superintendent can be left at liberty to appoint and hold as many of this class of meetings, at such times and at such periods of the year, as he shall deem best, without regard to county lines or particular months, provided he has reasonable assurance of the attendance of at least forty teachers, and provided the expense of each Institute shall not exceed one dollar for each teacher in attendance, or fifty dollars on an average to each Institute.

EDUCATIONAL LECTURES.

In pursuance of a plan set forth in my Report for 1850, and of a resolution of the General Assembly in May of that year, I have continued to hold meetings of such persons as were disposed to come together on public notice, in different school societies, for familiar and practical addresses and discussions on topics connected with the organization and administration of the school system, and of the classification, instruction, and discipline of public schools. With the coöperation of several gentlemen, all of them successful teachers, and most of them, experienced school officers, more than four hundred addresses have been delivered in different sections of the State. But for the failure of certain appointments from want of due notice, and in some instances, on account of meetings for other objects at the only time in which I could provide an address, at least one address would have been delivered, not only in every school society, but in every large neighborhood. The expense of this movement, by the resolution of the General Assembly, is limited to three dollars for each society visited, a sum barely sufficient to meet the traveling expenses of the persons employed. For this trifling expenditure, an impulse of a most salutary and far reaching character has been given to the cause of school improvement, and the results are even now visible in the more enlightened and vigorous action of school districts, officers, and teachers.

COUNTY INSPECTION.

In pursuing this plan of operations, I have aimed to secure not only an address on topics connected with the condition and improvement of common schools, but to illustrate in a limited and imperfect manner, some of the advantages of a system of county inspection, and of a plan of reports which shall present the comparative standing of the schools in the several societies of the same county. With this end in view, the lecturers were requested to confer with school visitors and teachers, to visit at least two schools in each society in which an address was delivered, and after completing their circuit of lectures and visits, to present a report of their doings, and the results of their observations and inquiries.

ADDRESSES BY CLERGYMEN.

In addition to the lectures given in connection with this plan of school visitation, and meetings, I am happy to state that many clergymen have addressed their people on the subject at appropriate seasons. It is difficult for me to see what day and place would be inappropriate for a clergyman to address parents on their duties as to the education of children, or the community as to the care and improvement of their schools. It is due to the clergy of Connecticut, to say, that as a class they have done, and are doing more for the improvement of common schools, than any other and all other portions of the community together, the parents of the children at school not excepted. But some of them

can still find room for more vigorous efforts, and not weary themselves in well-doing.

MEETINGS OF TEACHERS WITH THEIR SCHOOLS.

In connection with the educational lectures, in several towns, meetings of all the teachers with their schools and the parents of the children, under the auspices of the school visitors, have been held with the most gratifying results. At these school celebrations, the best methods of conducting the exercises, and studies of our district schools, have been illustrated, with classes of children, in contrast with the methods in too many instances pursued by teachers, who have not enjoyed opportunities of visiting the best schools, or of studying and practicing the art of teaching under the direction of a master workman in the profession. This class of meetings and exercises have been held mainly by that excellent teacher and practical lecturer, Mr. William S. Baker, who has devoted the entire winter to the improvement of the common schools, by lectures, familiar visits to schools, and personal interviews with teachers and parents.

PROPOSED MODIFICATIONS OF THE SCHOOL LAW.

The Joint Standing Committee on Education, of the last General Assembly, submitted a bill for an Act in addition to and in alteration of "An Act concerning Education," which was continued to the present session, and ordered to be printed with the laws of 1851, that it might be brought to the notice of the people. To aid in this object, I caused an edition of the bill to be printed with a review of the action of the legislature for the last ten years, and circulated among school officers and friends of educational improvement. I have heard but one opinion expressed, and that in approval of all the main features of this bill, by those best acquainted with the present condition of our schools.

CONSOLIDATION OF SCHOOL SOCIETIES COMMITTEE AND VISITORS.

Section 1 provides for a union in one committee, of the powers and duties now distributed between two sets of officers. This simple provision will bring the entire supervision of the school affairs of a society under one committee, and the certificate of this committee as to the expenditure of public money, the employment of duly qualified teachers for at least the period of the year required by law, and the regular visitation of the schools, will be based hereafter on the personal knowledge of the members, and not on the general declarations of district committees, or the more vague supposition that the schools have been kept according to law.

ABOLITION OF SCHOOL SOCIETIES.

Sections 2, 3, and 4, provide for the gradual restoration of our school system, with the consent and action of all interested, as far and as fast only as such consent shall be given, and such action had, to its original territorial organization. In reference to the policy of our present organization, I beg leave to repeat the views substantially which I have before communicated to the public. (*See Ante*, p. 288.)

GRADATION OF SCHOOLS.

To enable children to derive the highest degree of benefit from their attendance at school, they should go through a regular course of training in a succession of classes and schools arranged according to similarity of age, standing, and attainments, under teachers possessing the qualifications best adapted to each grade of school. The practice has been almost universal in Connecticut, and in other States where the organization of the schools is based upon the division of the territory into school districts, to provide but one school for as many children of both sexes, and of all ages from four to sixteen years, as can be gathered in from certain territorial limits, into one apartment, under one teacher;—a female teacher in summer, and a male teacher in winter. The disadvantages of this practice, both to pupils and teachers, are great and manifold.

There is a large amount of physical suffering and discomfort, as well as great hindrances in the proper arrangement of scholars and classes, caused by crowd-

ing the older and younger pupils into the same school-room, without seats and furniture appropriate to either; and the greatest amount of suffering and discomfort falls upon the young, who are least able to bear it, and who, in consequence, acquire a distaste to study and the school-room.

The work of education going on in such schools, can not be appropriate and progressive. There can not be a regular course of discipline and instruction, adapted to the age and proficiency of pupils—a series of processes, each adapted to certain periods in the development of the mind and character, the first intended to be followed by a second, and the second by a third; the latter always depending on the earlier, and all intended to be conducted on the same general principles, and by methods varying with the work to be done, and the progress already made.

With the older and younger pupils in the same room, there can not be a system of discipline which shall be equally well adapted to both classes. If it secures the cheerful obedience and subordination of the older, it will press with unwise severity upon the younger pupils. If it be adapted to the physical wants, and peculiar temperaments of the young, it will endanger the good order and habits of study of the more advanced pupils, by the frequent change of posture and position, and other indulgences, which it permits and requires of the former.

With studies ranging from the alphabet and the simplest rudiments of knowledge, to the higher branches of an English education, a variety of methods of instruction and illustration are called for, which are seldom found together, or in an equal degree, in the same teacher, and which can never be pursued with equal success in the same school-room. The elementary principles of knowledge, to be intelligible and interesting to the young, must be presented by a large use of the oral and simultaneous methods. The higher branches, especially all mathematical subjects, require patient application and habits of abstraction, on the part of the older pupils, which can with difficulty, if at all, be attained by many pupils, amid a multiplicity of distracting exercises, movements, and sounds. The recitations of this class of pupils, to be profitable and satisfactory must be conducted in a manner which requires time, discussion, and explanation, and the undivided attention both of pupils and teachers.

From the number of class and individual recitations, to be attended to during each half-day, these exercises are brief, hurried, and of little practical value. They consist, for the most part, of senseless repetitions of the words of a book. Instead of being the time and place, where the real business of teaching is done, where the ploughshare of interrogation is driven down into the acquirements of each pupil, and his ability to comprehend clearly, is cultivated and tested; where the difficult principles of each lesson are developed and illustrated, and additional information imparted; and the mind of the teacher brought in direct contact with the mind of each pupil, to arouse, interest, and direct its opening powers—instead of all this, and more, the brief period passed in recitation, consists, on the part of the teacher, of hearing each individual and class, in regular order and quick succession, repeat words from a book; and on the part of the pupils, of *saying their lessons*, as the operation is most significantly described by most teachers, when they summon the class to the stand. In the mean time the order of the school must be maintained, and the general business must go forward. Little children, without any authorized employment for their eyes and hands, and ever active curiosity, must be made to sit still, while every muscle is aching from suppressed activity; pens must be mended, copies set, arithmetical difficulties solved, excuses for tardiness or absence received, questions answered, whisperings allowed or suppressed, and more or less of extempore discipline administered. Were it not a most ruinous waste of precious time,—did it not involve the deadening, crushing, distorting, dwarfing of immortal faculties and noble sensibilities,—were it not an utter perversion of the noble objects for which schools are instituted, it would be difficult to conceive of a more diverting farce than an ordinary session of a large public school, whose chaotic and discordant elements have not been reduced to system by a proper classification. The teacher, at least the conscientious teacher, thinks it any thing but a farce to him. Compelled to hurry from one study to another, requiring a knowledge of methods altogether distinct,—from one recitation to another, equally

brief and unsatisfactory, one requiring a liveliness of manner, which he does not feel and can not assume, and the other closeness of attention and abstraction of thought, which he can not give amid the multiplicity and variety of cares,—from one case of discipline to another, pressing on him at the same time,—he goes through the same circuit, day after day, with a dizzy brain and aching heart, and brings his school to a close with a feeling, that with all his diligence and fidelity, he has accomplished but little good.

But great as are the evils of a want of proper classification of schools, arising from the causes already specified, these evils are aggravated by the almost universal practice of employing one teacher in summer, and another in winter, and different teachers each successive summer and winter. Whatever progress one teacher may make in bringing order out of the chaotic elements of a large district school, is arrested by the termination of his school term. His experience is not available to his successor, who does not come into the school until after an interval of weeks or months, and in the mean time the former teacher has left the town or State. The new teacher is a stranger to the children and their parents, is unacquainted with the system pursued by his predecessor, and has himself but little or no experience in the business: in consequence chaos comes back again, and the confusion is still worse confounded by the introduction of new books, for every teacher prefers to teach from the books in which he studied, or which he has been accustomed to teach, and many teachers can not teach profitably from any other. Weeks are thus passed, in which the school is going through the process of organization, and the pupils are becoming accustomed to the methods and requirements of a new teacher—some of them are put back, or made to retrace their studies in new books, while others are pushed forward into studies for which they are not prepared; and at the end of three or four months, the school relapses into chaos. There is a constant change, but no progress.

This want of system and this succession of new teachers go on from term to term, and year to year—a process which would involve any other interest in speedy and utter ruin, where there was not provision made for fresh material to be experimented upon, and counteracting influences at work to restore, or at least obviate the injury done. What other business of society could escape utter wreck, if conducted with such want of system,—with such constant disregard of the fundamental principle of the division of labor, and with a succession of new agents every three months, none of them trained to the details of the business, each new agent acting without any knowledge of the plan of his predecessor, or any well settled plan of his own! The public school is not an anomaly, an exception, among the great interests of society. Its success or failure depends on the existence or absence of certain conditions; and if complete failure does not follow the utter neglect of these conditions, it is because every term brings into the schools a fresh supply of children to be experimented upon, and sweeps away others beyond the reach of bad school instruction and discipline; and because the minds of some of these children are, for a portion of each day, left to the action of their own inherent forces, and the more kindly influences of nature, the family and society.

Among these conditions of success in the operation of a system of public schools, is such a classification of the scholars as shall bring a large number of similar age and attainments, at all times, and in every stage of their advancement, under teachers of the right qualifications, and shall enable these teachers to act upon numbers at once, for years in succession, and carry them all forward effectually together, in a regular course of instruction.

The great principle to be regarded in the classification, either of the schools of a town or district, or of scholars in the same school, is equality of attainments, which will generally include those of the same age. Those who have gone over substantially the same ground, or reached, or nearly reached the same point of attainment in several studies, should be put together, and constitute, whenever their number will authorize it, one school. These again should be arranged in different classes, for it is seldom practicable, even if it were ever desirable, to have but one class in every study in the same grade of school. Even in very large districts, where the scholars are promoted from a school of a lower grade to one of a higher, after being found qualified in certain studies, it

is seldom that any considerable number will have reached a common standard of scholarship in all their studies. The same pupil will have made very different progress, in different branches. He will stand higher in one and lower in another. By arranging scholars of the same general division in different classes, no pupil need be detained by companions who have made, or can make less progress, or be hurried over lessons and subjects in a superficial manner, to accommodate the more rapid advancement of others. Although equality of attainment should be regarded as the general principle, some regard should be paid to age, and other circumstances. A large boy of sixteen, from the deficiency of his early education, which may be his misfortune and not his fault, ought not to be put into a school or class of little children, although their attainments may be in advance of his. This step would mortify and discourage him. In such extreme cases, that arrangement will be best which will give the individual the greatest chance of improvement, with the least discomfort to himself, and hindrance to others. Great disparity of age in the same class, or the same school, is unfavorable to uniform and efficient discipline, and the adaptation of methods of teaching, and of motives to application and obedience. Some regard, too, should be had to the preferences of individuals, especially among the older pupils, and their probable destination in life. The mind comes into the requisition of study more readily, and works with higher results, when led onward by the heart; and the utility of any branch of study, its relations to future success in life, once clearly apprehended, becomes a powerful motive to effort.

It will not be necessary to pursue this subject further in this connection. The extent to which the gradation and classification of schools shall be carried, in any town, society or district, will depend, and the number of classes reduced in any school will depend on the compactness, numbers, or other circumstances of the population, and the number and age of the pupils, and the studies and methods of instruction in each school.

PROPERTY TAXATION.

Section 5. provides for the assessment of a property tax in each school society for the support of common schools. There is a pressing necessity for additional resources in each school district and society to maintain such common schools as the right education of the children of the State requires.

Without the means, at once certain and sufficient to provide good schoolhouses, good books, good teachers, and good supervision, for a sufficient number of schools, there can not be the highest degree of efficiency in any school law, however perfect in other respects. In my opinion, it is both just and expedient to provide liberally, but not exclusively, by State endowment, for the support of public instruction. As education is a want not felt by those who need it most, for themselves or their children,—as it is a duty which avarice and a short-sighted self-interest may disregard,—as it is a right which is inherent in every child, but which the child can not enforce, and as it is an interest both public and individual, which can not safely be neglected, it is unwise and unjust to leave it to the sense of parental duty, or the unequal and insufficient resources which individuals, and local authorities under the stimulus of ordinary motives, will provide. If it is thus left, there will be the educated few, and the uneducated many. This is the uniform testimony of all history. The leading object should be, for the State to stimulate and secure, but not supersede the proper efforts of parents and local authorities, and to see that the means thus provided are so applied as to make the advantages of education as equal as the varying circumstances of families and local communities will admit. If brought to the test of these principles, our present mode of supporting education will be found deficient. The schools are every where placed on a short allowance, and the children of the State are subjected to the most gross inequalities of school privileges. As the means realized out of permanent public funds have increased, the means provided by parents, towns, societies and districts, have diminished in nearly the same proportion. At first, towns and societies were released from the legal obligation to raise money by tax for school purposes; and with this obligation the habit of doing so, which commenced with our existence as a people, almost immediately ceased. The practice of parental contribution toward

the expenses of the school, for board of the teacher, fuel, and other incidental expenses, which was at first rendered absolutely necessary in order to continue the school in certain towns eleven months, and in all, at least six months in the year, was gradually relaxed, until in a majority of the districts the school is kept open just long enough, under a teacher at the lowest rate of compensation at which a young person without experience and without intending to make teaching a business, can be employed, to use up the public money derived from the state or town. Even the custom of "boarding" the teacher,—a custom better honored in the breach than in the observance,—is complied with so grudgingly and reluctantly by many families, that teachers with any degree of self-respect, will not long continue to subject themselves to the annoyance of this mode of begging their bread. The result is, that taxation for common school purposes, except to build and repair school-houses, and that on the most penurious scale, is almost entirely abandoned by parents, districts, and societies, and the right even is diputed and denied.

DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL MONEY ACCORDING TO ATTENDANCE.

Section 6 contemplates the application of a new principle to the distribution among the several districts, of all money appropriated by the State for the support of common schools. This principle recognizes the number of children in actual attendance,—the number who actually attend school,—not the number which should be there,—as the true basis of distribution. The alteration herein proposed has been recommended by several of the most experienced school officers in the country. The commissioner appointed to prepare a common school code for the State of New York, (Hon. S. S. Randall,) introduces this feature with the following remarks:

"It is proposed that the public money shall be distributed by the town superintendent among the several reporting school districts in proportion to the *number of pupils actually attending* the schools therein, and the average length of time they shall have so attended, to be ascertained by the teacher's authenticated lists. The existing system of apportionment, according to the number of persons residing in the district between the ages of four and twenty-one years, not only seems unwarranted by any sound principle of distribution, but operates with gross inequality and injustice in very many sections of the country. In city and village and manufacturing districts, its inevitable effect is to enhance the amount of public money beyond all proportion to the educational wants of the population, at the expense of the rural districts which absolutely need it. The funds contributed and authorized by the State should be equitably and fairly distributed, with a view solely to the benefit of those who actually participate in the privileges which they are designed to secure. Why should a district, where the greater portion of the children under the age of twenty-one years are engaged in manufacturing establishments, or in attendance at private and select schools, or not attending any, receive a share of this fund corresponding, not to the number actually availing themselves during any portion of the year of the benefits of the school, but to the whole number residing in the district, whether they have ever attended a day or not, while in a neighboring district where, perhaps, every child is kept at school for six or eight months of every year, its distributive share is barely sufficient to warrant the payment of a sum adequate to secure the services of the lowest class of teachers? By the adoption of the proposed principle of distribution, a direct and very powerful inducement is held out for the regular and punctual attendance at the district school of the greatest number of children, and for the longest possible terms. The advantages to be derived from this equitable arrangement, far outweigh, in the judgment of the undersigned, all the objections which have been urged against it from the comparative facilities for regular attendance afforded by cities and villages over those of the country districts. In point of fact it is believed the average attendance in the latter is much greater, in proportion to the population, than the former; but even if the fact were otherwise, the greater the number of children in attendance, and the longer the average term of such attendance, whether in the city or country, the more liberal should be the allowance of the public money."

To obviate any injustice which the small districts might suffer, it is provided that every district shall receive a sum at least sufficient to keep a common school for the minimum length of time required by law. The operation of this rule in time, probably will be to diminish the number of very small districts.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS BY COUNTY INSPECTORS.

Section 17 authorizes the superintendent of common schools to appoint one or more persons to visit school societies and districts in different sections of the State, for the purpose of inspecting schools, lecturing on the subject of education, giving and receiving information and suggestions on all matters relating to the condition and improvement of the common schools. In addition to these duties, the persons thus appointed are authorized to grant to those teachers, with whose examination and success in the practical duties of the school-room as observed by them in their visits to the school they are satisfied, a certificate of qualification which shall be good for two years.

The expense to the State of this new feature of school inspection in our system can not exceed by this law three dollars to each society visited, or six hundred and thirty-one dollars, provided every society is reached. The State of Massachusetts appropriates annually twenty-five hundred dollars, in addition to the expense of the Board of Education, for the employment of two agents, "to labor among the people, arouse their attention, propose improvements in all the practical details of applying school money, of arranging districts, and of building houses, harmonize conflicting interests, converting private schools and academies either into public schools, or auxiliaries to them; attend public meetings, and conventions of teachers, advising with school committees, and visiting schools and aiding teachers, by their suggestions." Some of the objects here specified, and aimed at in the sections under consideration have been already realized in this State in a limited and imperfect manner, under the plan of lectures authorized by the resolution of 1850, commented on in my report for this and last year. The following suggestions were contained in my special report, accompanying the report of county inspectors of common schools, and are repeated as expressing my present views on the subject, and on the provisions of this section of the bill.

The want of an official authority,—the narrow sphere of action,—and the brief period of time which each county lecturer, with the compensation allowed, (which is barely sufficient to meet the expenses of travel,) will be able to give to the work, will, of course, make a broad difference in the result of this plan, from that of a system of county, or senatorial district inspection, which might easily be framed, and which should include the examination of all candidates for the office of teacher in a common school, of every grade,—the granting of certificates of qualification, graduated according to the attainments, experience, and practical knowledge of each candidate, and subject to be revoked by the authority granting the same, on evidence of inefficiency or unworthiness,—the personal visit at least twice a year to every school in the circuit, in which the examination shall be conducted both by the teacher and inspector, and by means of oral and written answers,—a personal knowledge of every teacher and every school,—a familiar conference for one day and evening, with all the teachers of a town, at least once during each season of schooling, and with all the teachers of a county, for one week, in each year,—at least one public address in each town, after due notice, in which the relative standing of the several towns in respect to school-houses, the attendance of children at school, the length of the time the several schools are taught during the year, the compensation paid to teachers, the degree of parental and public interest in the whole matter of education, and other particulars, shall be set forth and fortified by statements made by local committees, and extracts from the records of personal visits to the school,—a conference once a year with the several officers of the several towns and districts who may choose to come together, on due notice, for consultation respecting books, teachers, apparatus, &c.,—and an annual report to the State Superintendent, embracing their own doings, the condition of the schools in each town, the relative standing of the several towns in all the essential points in the condition of public schools, and plans and suggestions for improving the

VII. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN ANHALT.

ANHALT, one of the oldest principalities of Germany, formerly consisting of four independent duchies but now consolidated into the two, Anhalt-Dessau-Cöthen and Anhalt-Bernburg,* is situated in the midst of Prussian Saxony, containing an area of 1,018 square miles and a population of 164,400. The territory is mostly level and very fertile, and agriculture is the chief occupation of the people, who are principally Protestants and noted for their industry. The two duchies are independent, but a family compact connects the reigning lines, and in many things they have been accustomed to act together. Their school systems, however, are entirely distinct, though there has ever been from an early period a general feeling strongly in favor of schools and education, by which Prince Ludwig was induced, alone of all the German princes, to assist Ratich,† in 1619, in the trial of his new method of teaching, which made possible the establishment of Basedow's Philanthropinum‡ at Dessau in 1774, and by reason of which the schools have flourished under the fostering care of princes and government.

I. ANHALT-DESSAU-CÖTHEN.

The schools of Anhalt-Dessau-Cöthen are regulated by the school laws of 1850 and 1854, by which the general interests of education in all the schools are in the hands of two "school councilors," who are experienced educationists, and, as members of the consistory, have there the representation of school matters. All the higher institutions are under their supervision, while the superintendence of the common schools, on the other hand, is obligatory upon fifteen "inspectors," chosen by the consistory from the preachers of the duchy, who visit the schools in their respective districts at least twice a year and report annually to the consistory. The immediate inspection of each common school is committed to the local pastor.

Common Schools exist both in the cities and in the country. The

* Since the preparation of this article, the duchy of Anhalt-Bernburg, in consequence of the death of the last duke, has been annexed to Anhalt-Dessau-Cöthen, forming the one duchy of Anhalt.

† For a memoir of Ratich and an account of his system, see "*Barnard's American Journal of Education*," V., page 228.

‡ For an article upon Basedow and his "Philanthropinum," see "*Barnard's American Journal of Education*," IV., page 125.

country schools number 139, with about 170 teachers, the schools in the larger villages with over 140 scholars having two teachers, one for the boys and one for the girls. Each school consists of at least two classes. The common schools of the cities—of which there are three boys' and two girls' schools at Dessau, and one of each in the other cities—hold their sessions but half the day. The number of classes in these is dependent upon the number of scholars, no class—at least not the highest and lowest ones—containing above seventy pupils. The subjects of instruction are biblical history, religion, reading, writing, exercises of the memory and in thinking, arithmetic, orthography, German, history, geography, natural history, and singing. School attendance commences with the seventh year and continues, on the part of girls, till the fourteenth year, and with the boys till the fifteenth year. The total number of scholars averages one in every five of the population—in some portions of the duchy, one in four. The salaries of the teachers vary from 200 to 400 thalers, according to their merits and time of service, and may amount in the cities to 500 thalers ($370.)

Besides these primary common schools, there are also higher ones in the cities of Dessau, Cöthen, and Zerbst, in which the branches of study, though the same, are pursued somewhat farther, while in the boys' school in special consideration of the wants of artisans and the lower trades, instruction is added in certain departments of geometry and mathematics, and in linear drawing and sketching. The classes can not exceed sixty scholars, and the number of hours of instruction per week varies from sixteen to thirty according to the rank of the class.

The training of teachers is effected in the *Teachers' Seminary* at Cöthen, conducted by a director, principal, and three teachers, where students pursue a three years' course as "preparandists," followed by a two years' course as "seminarists," in religion, biblical information, and the doctrines of the catechism, biblical and church history, arithmetic, botany, natural history, geography, history, and the German language, together with the main principles of instruction, the general and special doctrines of education, and the history and literature of pedagogy. The requisites for admission are the age of sixteen years, and to have advanced at least as far as the third class in the gymnasium. The seminarists have also practice in teaching under direction of the superintendent in the free schools of the city, which are attached to the seminary. The number of students is thirty, who receive their room rent, breakfast, and dinner, and the seminarists in addition fifteen thalers ($11,10) in money annually. After the first examination they are entered upon the list of school candidates, receive certificates minutely detailing their knowledge and accomplishments, and either immediately receive a position as common school teachers, or enter the free schools as assistant teachers with an annual salary of 100 thalers, or engage in private instruction until a permanent location offers. The annual expense of the seminary amounts to over 4,000 thalers.

There are three *gymnasiums* in the duchy, at Dessau, Cöthen, and Zerbst, each with 6–7 classes and a preparatory school. The latter have four classes and a four years' course of study in reading, writing, arithmetic, orthography, and German, religion, geography, history, singing, and drawing. The three lower classes of the gymnasiums are preparatory to the higher classes, and form a pro-gymnasium with a distinct plan of study embracing German, Latin, and French, religion, history, geography, natural history, practical arithmetic, elementary mathematics, penmanship, drawing, and gymnastics. At Dessau and Cöthen there are also special real classes separate from the pro-gymnasium. In the upper classes the course includes German, Latin, Greek, French, (English,) and also Hebrew for future theological students and philologists, religion, history, geography, mathematics, natural philosophy, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. Pupils usually enter the pro-gymnasium at the age of ten; the number of scholars in a class may not exceed fifty, and in the higher classes, forty. Each class has its special teacher. The teachers of each gymnasium form a committee for the examination of its graduates, without whose certificate the student can not lay claim to a stipend during his university course, nor afterwards be admitted to the civil examination necessary to obtain an office under the State. Candidates with gymnasial certificates are admitted to this civil examination from such other States as allow a similar privilege to the graduates of the Anhalt gymnasiums. No one can be engaged as classical or scientific teacher in a gymnasium who has not received the certificate of proficiency, finished the three years' academic course at the university, and shown his fitness upon the examination "pro facultate docendi" before the examining committee at the university, as well as his practical capacity for the office by a years' occupation as assistant at one of the three gymnasiums. The gymnasium at Dessau has an income of 9,500 thalers, 20 teachers, and 260–300 scholars—at Cöthen, 7,800 thalers, 19 teachers, and about 200 scholars—at Zerbst, 14 teachers, and 225–250 scholars, besides the preparatory school. There is also at Zerbst, attached to the gymnasium, the "Pedagogium" for boys of the higher classes, under the oversight of the gymnasial director, but having three teachers who reside with the pupils and are intimately associated with them. The expenses here are about 90 thalers annually.

There are higher *female schools*, at Dessau, with eight classes (the two highest having each a two years' course,) at Cöthen, with eight classes, and at Zerbst, with four classes. The plan of study includes reading, writing, arithmetic, religion, German, French, English, natural history, geography, singing, drawing, and feminine domestic accomplishments.

Besides these schools there are also at Dessau a trades' school and a gymnasial academy. The former has four classes with about 100 pupils from ten to sixteen years of age, among whom are many foreigners. The studies embrace German, French, and English, religion, mercantile and common arithmetic, general and commercial history, natural history, natural philosophy as connected with industry and the arts, the elements

of chemistry, technology, a business style, book-keeping, a knowledge of merchandise and commercial products, and of coins, weights, measures, and exchange, penmanship, drawing, and gymnastics. In the gymnasial academy, instruction is given in gymnastics to the pupils of the other institutions of the city, male and female. There is also connected with it a normal school, in which gymnasial teachers are trained in the principles of physical discipline, anatomy, physiology, and æsthetics.

All these various schools are State institutions and supported by the State at an annual expense of about 80,000 thalers ($60,000.) In the common schools a trifling tuition fee is exacted, from which the poor are exempt, and from the collection of which the teachers are relieved. In the erection of school buildings, one-third of the expense is defrayed by the parish, the remainder by the State. The teachers are servants of the State, and as such are independent of the parishes and also of the managing officials. Under the law respecting State service they may be suspended from office at pleasure whenever their positions become superfluous, or when, from continued sickness, they are prevented for more than six months from attending to their duties. In these cases they receive three-fourths or six-sevenths of their former salary, according as it has amounted to more or less than 500 thalers. Upon becoming unfitted for service they receive a pension, which is graduated according to the length of time which the teacher has spent in service—commencing with five sixteenths of the former salary, after five years of service, (or with one half, if the salary has not exceeded 300 thalers,) it receives an increase for each five years, until the veteran of fifty years school labor is relieved of his toil but still enjoys the whole of his former salary.

ANHALT-BERNBURG.

The schools of this duchy are under the consistory of Bernburg, whose president, the present superintendent Dr. Walther, has for ten years conducted the management of them with care, energy, and decision. The obligation to establish and locate the schools rests chiefly upon the parishes, subsidiary to the church patron and the State. The number of schools is 144, with 160 male and 18 female teachers, who receive an average salary of 290 thalers, ($215) ranging from 175 to 600 thalers. There is a Teachers' Seminary at Bernburg, with eight teachers, thirteen preparandists, and fourteen seminarists; the requisites for admission are a good musical preparation, familiarity with those portions of Christian doctrine which are committed to memory, and in other respects the qualifications of a third class student of the gymnasium. The course continues five years and the graduates are usually immediately located as teachers.

There is a central female high school (at Bernburg) with five classes, and also three other female schools. There is also a high burgher school at Bernburg. The gymnasium numbers 300 pupils in six classes, with thirteen teachers. Preparatory to the gymnasiums are the six rector schools within the duchy. The income of the schools, from endowment

funds, tuition fees, and State appropriations, amounts to about 46,000 thalers ($34,000.)

In other particulars, in the course of study, &c., the schools are similar to those of Anhalt-Dessau-Cöthen. The system of management on the part of the teachers is, however, peculiar and is styled by its author, Dr. Walther, "monotheletisch," because *one will* rules throughout—not an arbitrary will, but a will the resultant of reason. This system is applied in all the classes of whatever grade in the Anhalt-Bernburg schools, and under it every child is actively participant in every moment's instruction, so that he recognizes himself at every moment as an essential member of the class and sets himself forth as such to himself and to the school. Never does the teacher leave the class for the individual, and never the individual for the class, and the teacher is such to the child only to that degree in which the child is actually a representative of the class. The architecture and furniture of the schools, the arrangement and classification of the scholars, the singing and conversation are all made to conform with the requirements of the system.

VIII. NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY CONVENTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS.

THE history of educational associations in New York dates back more than half a century. The principle of association, in lyceums, conventions, and organizations of various names, had, however, asserted itself for many years before the proper era of their successful working commenced. They are, perhaps, worthy of note, in view of their influence in shaping the school polity of New York. The same Legislature (that of 1811) which appointed a committee to report a plan for the organization of a system of common schools for the State, which system was inaugurated in 1812, also incorporated "*The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes.*"* The same Society was revived by the Act of April 15, 1818, with Albert Picket as President. In that year, also, Albert and John W. Picket commenced the publication of an educational and literary journal entitled "*The Academician,*"† which was issued for two years. The first number bears date February 7, 1818.

The common school system of the State was gradually growing into form and efficiency, as township after township and county after county took on a permanent organization, and the settlement of new lands created new districts. We have little, however, to record in the way of educational associations until after the commencement of the new era dating from the organization of the American Lyceum in 1826. This seems to have had its immediate fruits in an awakening among the teachers in various localities in several of the States, among which New York has an honorable record. In the *Annals of Education* for December, 1831, we find the following: "Among the many associations of this kind which mark in a most striking manner the spirit of the age, is the Teach-

* For history of the N. Y. Society of Teachers, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. XIV., p. 807.

† "*The Academician,*" containing the Elements of Scholastic Science, and the Outlines of Philosophical Education, predicated on the Analysis of the Human Mind, and exhibiting the Improved Methods of Instruction. By Albert Picket, President of the Incorporated Society of Teachers, and John W. Picket, Corresponding Secretary, &c., &c., New York.

ers' Society of Westchester, New York. Although but recently established, it has excited the zeal of many friends of education within its limits, and led them to examine some of the important subjects to which the Society will direct its attention."

In 1832 and 1833 educational meetings were held in several of the counties, the earliest of which seem to have been in St Lawrence, Clinton and Ontario. In December, 1835, a "Teachers' Association for Mutual Improvement" was organized in the town of Charlton, and had an active existence for a little more than two years. Augustus P. Smith, afterwards Principal of one of the public schools in Albany, was President; and M. P. Cavert, now of the State Department of Public Instruction, was Secretary. Through the agency of the last-named gentleman, chiefly, the movement was inaugurated. Among the names of the first members we find that of D. H. Cruttenden, now an active member of the State Association.

In 1836 the teachers of Troy formed an association, and this was followed by similar action on the part of their brethren in Albany. Between these associations the greatest cordiality existed, and the social element in their meetings was a marked feature, though the grand questions of educational progress were never lost sight of, and a high moral tone characterized the proceedings.

Among the early county conventions we have a most interesting record of the "Proceedings of the County Convention of Teachers and others interested in the cause of Education, held at the Court-House, Troy, Friday, Jan. 27, 1837." Measures were inaugurated for the formation of an association, and an address was ordered to be prepared for the purpose of awakening a deeper interest among the people in the cause of public education.

The necessity for an educational journal in advancing the interests of education seems to have been always recognized by the best educators of the State; and before any general movement was made for a State convention, we find a journal established in the interest of educational reform. On the first day of January, 1836, Mr. J. Orville Taylor, encouraged by the sanction of such men as Governor Marcy, Dr. B. T. Welch, Bishop Onderdonk, Hon. Gideon Hawley, Chancellor Walworth and others, commenced the publication of a monthly paper, in quarto, entitled "The Common School Assistant; a Monthly Paper for the improvement of Common School Education." This paper was continued for three years. In the number for July, 1836, is the following notice:

The common school teachers of the State of New York are respectfully requested to meet in the Capitol at Albany, on the 20th of September next, at 12 o'clock. As it is known that this Convention is called for the purpose of in-

creasing the pay and influence of those engaged in this arduous and honorable profession, there will be a full and general attendance. Teachers from every town in the State are expected. Editors in the State are respectfully requested to publish this notice.

This Convention met pursuant to the foregoing notice, and continued in session two days under the following permanent officers: J. Orville Taylor, *President;* S. S. Brush, E. P. Freeman, J. Henry, Jr., E. R. Reynolds, *Vice-Presidents;* G. B. Glendening, S. R. Sweet, *Secretaries.*

The names of one hundred and forty members were registered the first day.

Addresses were delivered by J. N. Parsons, on "*Teaching Orthography,*" and by Rev. G. D. Abbott, on "*The necessity of providing for the mental culture of the people of the United States.*"

Messrs. J. O. Taylor, Joseph Fellows, and J. N. Parsons, were appointed to "draft an address to the community, expressive of the views of the Convention on the importance of elevating the standard of common education." A committee was also appointed to provide for the organization of a State society, by reporting a Constitution.

Important resolutions touching education were discussed at length and adopted. Among the resolutions was one to secure the application of the surplus revenue of the U. S. Deposit Fund to the support of common schools.

The Convention adjourned to meet at the call of the committee on organization.

A meeting was held in Albany on the 18th of February next ensuing, of which we can find no record save that an able address was issued containing a call for a general convention to meet in Utica on the 11th of May following.

This Convention was held in accordance with the call, with the following officers: Hon. Jabez D. Hammond, of Cherry Valley, *Pres.* Prof. Alonzo Potter, Union College, Dr. John McCall, Utica, Rev. J. S. Mitchell, G. W. Hungerford, Watertown, H. H. Ingraham, Poughkeepsie, B. N. Loomis, Binghamton, E. Wilson, Jr., Troy, *Vice-Pres.* Samuel N. Sweet, George B. Glendening, *Secretaries.*

The introductory address was given by Prof. Alonzo Potter, of Union College, and lectures were also delivered, or essays read, upon the following subjects: "*The Present Laws relating to Schools, especially Common Schools, with suggestions for Legislative Improvement,*" by Hon. J. D. Hammond, President; "*Qualifications and Reponsibilities of Teachers,*" by Rev. A. B. Grosh, of

Utica; "*The Appropriate Branches of Study for Schools, and the order in which they should be taught*," by J. W. Bulkley, of Troy; "*Constructing and Furnishing School-houses, and Organizing School Lyceums*," by C. H. Anthony, of Troy; "*Vocal Music, as a branch of Common School Education*," by A. C. Carter, of Whitesboro'; "*Elocution, as a branch of General Education*," by S. N. Sweet.

On the second day of the Convention a constitution was reported, discussed and adopted, and an association was organized under the name of "The New York State Society for the Improvement of Schools."

The plan of organization contemplated the creation of auxiliary societies in each of the counties; and a Vice-President for each county was elected, whose duty it was to call meetings in their respective counties, and to report annually to the State Society. The initiation fee was two dollars, and the annual fee one dollar. Twenty dollars constituted life membership.

The following officers were elected under the constitution: Hon. Jabez D. Hammond, Cherry Valley, *Pres.*; *Vice-Pres.*, [one in each county;] George B. Glendening, Troy, *Rec. Sec.*; Rev. P. L. Whipple, Lansingburgh, *Cor. Sec.*; Bradford R. Wood, Albany, *Treas.*; *Ex. Com.* of twelve members, J. W. Bulkley, of Troy, *Chairman.*

Rev. G. D. Abbott, of New York, presented a sketch of the origin, plan, and objects of the American Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, of which he was Secretary. The subject was referred to a committee who reported a resolution commending that organization.

The following are among the more important of the resolutions discussed and adopted:

Resolved, That we recommend to the Executive Committee of the State Society to appoint an agent in each Senatorial district of the State, who shall lecture on education—encourage the circulation of the publications of the Society and other periodicals approved by the Executive Committee, and coöperate with the citizens of the several counties in the formation of County Associations.

Resolved, That we recommend to the County Associations to appoint agents whose duty it shall be to organize town societies, to lecture on the best modes of teaching, encourage the establishment of *temporary schools for qualifying teachers*, and do all in their power to effect, from time to time, improvement in the modes of teaching and management of schools.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Convention, the clergy do not use their influence to the extent they ought, in advancing the interests of education in this State.

Resolved, That the visitation of schools by the clergy and other professional gentlemen is earnestly desired by this Convention.

Resolved, That this Convention highly appreciate the influence of ladies on our social condition, and that we invite them to exert it in the cause of education, especially by their frequent visitations of schools in their several districts.

Resolved, That we respectfully invite the clergy throughout the State to preach on the subject of education.

Resolved, That we recommend the formation of school lyceums, on the plan laid down in the lecture on that subject by Mr. Anthony.

Resolved, That the elements of Natural Science, including an outline of Anatomy and Physiology, should be made a part of popular education.

Resolved, That Natural History is peculiarly appropriate as an elementary study, and that it tends to accelerate the progress of pupils in other branches of education.

Subsequent to the adjournment of the convention a circular was prepared by Mr. J. W. Bulkley, Chairman of the Executive Committee, and sent to the Vice-President in each county, and to other friends of education, urging the formation of County Associations and the adoption of such measures as would best further the objects of the parent Society.

The third article of the constitution provides that "the first annual meeting shall be held in Utica on the third Wednesday in August, 1837, and subsequently at such places as the Society shall determine." We have no information of any other meeting of this body. The financial crisis of 1837 doubtless caused a summary suspension of further action. It can not, however, be doubted, that although the old "New York State Society for the Improvement of Schools" met no more, it had already sown seeds which the future was to reap in a plentiful harvest.

The interval between this date and the next essay toward the establishment of a State Association was marked by some of the most important events in the history of the Common School system.

On the 25th of March, 1840, Francis Dwight commenced the publication of the District School Journal, at Geneva. In the following year a legislative appropriation was made for its support. "Mr. Dwight brought to his task a soul informed with noble impulses and earnest purposes. In the sixth year of the existence of this paper the talented and lamented editor was called away. He died December 15th, 1845, and was buried upon the first anniversary of the commencement of the State Normal School, in whose establishment he had done such signal service. S. S. Randall, who, at that time, was acting Superintendent of Schools, assumed the control of the *Journal*, and was connected with it till the close of the seventh volume, when it passed into the hands of W. H. Campbell. Edward Cooper, having left the editorship of the *Teachers' Advocate*, established by the State Association in 1845, became editor of the *Journal* in 1848. In 1849 the office of publication was removed to Albany, and Mr. Randall again assumed control, and remained connected with it as editor-in-chief, assisted in the eleventh volume by Wm. F. Phelps, since Principal of the N. J.

State Normal School, and in the twelfth by Joseph McKean, of New York. The date of the last number of the *Journal* is April, 1852."*

The Legislature of 1841 created the office of County Superintendent of Schools, and these officers, appointed by the Board of Supervisors in each of the several counties, entered upon their duties the ensuing winter. The result of this change in supervision was soon apparent in the increased efficiency of the schools, and in the inauguration of Teachers' Institutes and other appliances of educational progress and reform.

The first Teachers' Institute was held in Tompkins County, commencing April 4, 1843, under the management of J. S. Denman, County Superintendent, with Salem Town, Rev. David Powell and Prof. J. B. Thomson, as instructors. In the two succeeding years Institutes were organized in no less than seventeen counties, with an aggregate attendance of more than one thousand teachers.

The Normal School at Albany was opened on the 18th of December, 1844. Of the history of its establishment, its subsequent workings and its prosperity our readers are already aware.† All these great educational events seemed to be preparing the way for more direct action upon the part of teachers in leading the grand educational reforms.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The initiatory steps for a State Teachers' Association were taken on the 29th of March, 1845. At a meeting of the Albany County Teachers' Association, Mr. Thomas W. Valentine presented a resolution favoring a call for a State Teachers' Convention, which, after mature deliberation, was unanimously adopted. The late lamented Salem Town was at the meeting and "eloquently pressed upon the Association the importance of the movement, assuring us that the interior and western parts of the State were ready for action."

A committee was appointed consisting of J. W. Bulkley, T. W. Valentine, E. P. Freeman, J. L. Chapman, and A. E. Patch, to correspond with teachers and friends of education throughout the State, and to call a convention. On the fourth of April the chairman issued a circular of which the following is a copy, omitting the preliminary remarks explanatory of the occasion of the call:

> The Committee, in the discharge of their duty, would remark, that the interest now felt in the subject of education is without a parallel in our history. Provision is made, through the munificence of the State, for the education of *all* her children; and a healthy tone prevails as to the moral character and literary attainments of the teacher.

* *N. Y. Teacher*, Vol. IX., 1860, p. 244. † Barnard's Am. Jour of Ed., Vol. XIII., p. 341, 531.

The important question now is—how, with the interest that exists and the facilities enjoyed, we, as a profession, may render ourselves increasingly useful? We think this can be done, in part at least, by becoming better acquainted with each other—by mutual consultation and a free interchange of views on all important subjects of educational interest; in this way the combined wisdom and experience of all become common property, and the young teacher, in particular, may learn that which would cost him years of toil and observation while an isolated individual.

We want that which is practical in opposition to mere theory; common sense in opposition to the ethereal nonsense of the would-be-reformers of the present day; substance instead of shadow.

These are only a few of the considerations which induce us to think that such a meeting would be productive of great good. We see no other means by which our views can be made known, or our voice reach the ear of the public.

Is it not time that we should have the privilege of speaking for ourselves, when educational bodies having no power other than that which is merely advisory—composed, too, of professional men, farmers and mechanics, nine-tenths of whom have never taught a school—deny us the right of being heard, or if heard, of recording our vote on subjects, of which to say the least, we ought to know as much as those who turn aside from other pursuits with the benevolent design of enlightening *our* darkness!

We would respectfully request you to lay this communication before our friends assembled in convention, at Teachers' Institutes, or to practical teachers, if no opportunity offers through a public meeting, and communicate the result to us as soon as convenient, that there may be time for making arrangements for the proposed meeting, should there appear to be a desire for it.

Please be explicit in your returns to us. Are you in favor of the proposed meeting? At what time and place shall it be held? Do you think that Syracuse would be the best place? The last week of June or the first week of July the best time?

Any other time or place you would think best, please to note; we wish to advise that we may act discreetly.

By order of the Committee,

J. W. BULKLEY, *Chairman.*

On the 7th of June the committee met and unanimously decided upon the call of a convention to meet in Syracuse on the 30th day of July, 1845. A spirited notice of this call was published in the *District School Journal* for July, 1845.

The movement met with a hearty response, and on the morning of July 30, more than one hundred and fifty teachers assembled in convention in the city of Syracuse.

The Convention was organized by the appointment of Mr. William Ross, of Seneca county, as chairman, and Xenophon Haywood, of Rensselaer county, as secretary *pro tem.*

A committee was appointed to nominate permanent officers, who reported as follows, and the persons named were elected: J. W. Bulkley, of Albany, *Pres.;* William Barnes, of Monroe Co., W. H. Scram, of Onondaga Co., Joseph McKeen, of New York, —— Earle, of Allegany Co., *Vice-Pres.;* J. W. Morris, of New York Co., John Wright, of Livingston Co., *Secretaries.*

The President briefly addressed the Convention. Committees were appointed to enroll the names of members, report rules of order, and prepare business for the meeting.

Mr. T. W. Valentine, from the Business Committee, reported a list of topics, and on motion, committees to report upon them severally were appointed. As the result of these committees able reports were presented on the following subjects during the session: "*On the Use of the Bible in Schools*," by J. N. McElligott, of New York; "*On Teachers' Periodical*," by E. Cooper, of Westchester Co.; "*On School Discipline*," by X. Haywood, of Rensselaer Co.; "*On Town and County Superintendents*," by Thomas W. Valentine, of Albany; "*On Educational Fallacies*," by H. S. McCall; "*On Examination of Teachers*," by E. P. Freeman; "*On Educational Incentives*," by Joseph McKeen, of New York; "*On School Celebrations*," by F. Cooper, of Onondaga Co.

Addresses were also delivered as follows: "*The Rod vs. Moral Suasion*," by Prof. C. H. Anthony, Principal of Albany Classical Institute; "*The Common School System*," by Chester Dewey; "*How to elevate the Teachers' Profession*," by Prof. Edward North, of Hamilton College; "*The Requisites to a Good School*," by Prof. Fred. Emerson, of Boston.

The reports were discussed at length, and many principles enunciated formed a staple for the discussion of many years. That of Mr. Valentine elicited a most spirited debate, in which the rights of teachers as an independent profession were ably advocated.

No brief sketch can do justice to the spirit of this meeting, or to the able papers that were presented.

A periodical was established to be called *The Teachers' Advocate*. This was a 16-page quarto, at $2 per annum, published weekly. The first number was issued at Syracuse, September 10, 1845, under the editorship of Mr. E. Cooper, who continued connected with the paper till May 27, 1847, when it passed into the hands of Mr. Joseph McKeen, of New York, who was at that time President of the Association. During the remainder of the five years of its existence Mr. McKeen was assisted at various times by Mr. J. N. McElligott, Mr. E. P. Allen, Mr. S. S. Randall and others.

A constitution was reported by Mr. Cooper, and at half past eleven o'clock on the evening of July 30 the Convention was resolved into THE NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, and Chester Dewey, of Rochester, was elected President.

After the organization the Association adjourned to meet in Utica, on the third Wednesday in August, 1846, at 9 A. M.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

THE FIRST ANNIVERSARY of the New York State Teachers' Association was held in Utica, Aug. 19 and 20, 1846, Mr. Bulkley, first

Vice-President, in the chair. The meeting was fully attended, the names of nearly two hundred teachers being enrolled as members. The following is a list of the officers elected in 1845: Chester Dewey, of Rochester, *Pres.* J. W. Bulkley of Albany, W. H. Scram of Syracuse, J. W. Earle of Pike, Wm. Belden of New York, *Vice-Pres.* Edward Cooper, of Sing Sing, *Cor. Sec.* John Wright, of Geneseo, Livingston Co., *Rec. Sec.* Dr. W. B. Osborne, of Utica, *Treas.*

The following reports were received on the part of committees appointed at the last meeting: "*On Teachers' Institutes*," by Salem Town;* "*On Elementary Education*," by Albert D. Wright, of Kings county; "*On Educational Fallacies*," by C. H. Anthony; "*On School Discipline*," read by Mr. Perry on behalf of Marcius Willson, chairman; "*On a Teachers' Paper*," by Joseph McKeen, of New York. [A committee was accordingly appointed to effect at their discretion the establishment of a monthly educational periodical—Messrs. McKeen, Bulkley, Patterson, Day and Morris.] "*On Jacotot's System of Education*," by David Patterson, of New York; "*On the Teachers' Profession*," by Parsons E. Day, of Ontario. [Recommending the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries, six or eight in the State, whose diploma should be a professional basis; the publication of a teachers' library; and that the schools should be made absolutely free.] "*On the use of the Bible in Schools*," by J. N. McElligott; "*On Agricultural Education*," by S. B. Woolworth, (now Secretary of the Regents;) "*On School Celebrations*," by E. P. Freeman; "*On the School System*," by X. Haywood; "*On Union Schools*," by J. Swift.

Letters were read from Horace Mann, Ira Mayhew, Henry Barnard, John Beck, and others, expressing the liveliest interest in the success of the Association.

The following lectures were delivered; "*Origin of the School System*," by Salem Town; "*The Neglected Tree*," by David P. Page; "*Direct Influence of the Teacher upon the Pupil*," by Rev. M. McIlvaine; "*Divorce of the offices of the Secretary of State and Superintendent of Common Schools*," by Hon. A. Stewart.

Resolutions were also presented and adopted:—By C. H. Anthony—Disapproving of the diversion of the Literary Fund from the Academies and Colleges, and recommending the adoption of a free common school system; by J. N. McElligott—Recommend-

* Appended to this report was a series of resolutions whereby Messrs. Salem Town, S. S. Randall and S. W. Clark were appointed a committee to memorialise the Legislature in regard to the benefits of Institutes, and to secure pecuniary aid. In accordance with this action, the Legislature, at the subsequent session of 1847, made an appropriation of $60 to each county for Institutes.—*N. Y. Teacher*, 1860.

ing the use of the Bible as a means of moral instruction in schools, and especially its reading, without note or comment, as the opening exercise of the day; by Prof. S. B. Woolworth—Recommending the study of the elements of Agricultural Science in common schools; by the same—Recommending the separation of the office of Superintendent of Schools from that of Secretary of State; by Mr. Mortimer—Recommending a National Association and a National Educational Bureau.

THE SECOND ANNIVERSARY was held in Rochester, Aug. 4 and 5, 1847, with the following officers:—Joseph McKeen, of New York, *Pres.* E. M. Rollo of Broome Co., Wm. Barnes of Rochester, T. W. Valentine of Albany, Henry Mandeville of Clinton, *Vice-Pres.* Edward Cooper of Onondaga Co., *Cor. Sec.* W. Hopkins, of Cayuga, *Rec. Sec.* Xenophon Haywood, of Rensselaer, *Treas.*

In the course of the meeting lectures were delivered by the following individuals:—"*Introductory Lecture*," by the President;* "*The Bible as a Text book*," by J. W. Bulkley; "*Language*," by J. N. McElligott; ———, by Dr. Proudfit, of New Jersey.

B. Field, Esq., of Boston, and other gentlemen from abroad, were present and briefly addressed the Association.

Mr. O. W. Morris, of the N. Y. Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, gave an exhibition of pupils from that Institution, which was full of interest.

Reports were presented as follows:—"*On the Study of the Natural Sciences*," by J. H. Partridge; "*Ventilating and Warming of School-houses*," by J. W. Bulkley; "*Moral Education*," by E. M. Rollo; "*Reformatory Schools*," by O. W. Morris; "*Emulation in Schools*," by W. C. Kenyon; "*Teachers' Institutes*," by Salem Town; "*Female Teachers—their Usefulness, Qualifications and Compensation*," by Miss E. Oran, of New York; "*The Teachers' Profession*," by S. W. Clark.

A committee was raised to secure an act of incorporation from the Legislature.

In April of this year Mr. McKeen, in accordance with a resolution passed in 1846, started a monthly periodical in New York called *The American Journal of Education*, of which five numbers were published. After this meeting of the Association the *Advo-*

* In this lecture Mr. McKeen took high ground in favor of educational reform, and urged to unity and persistency in carrying forward the objects of the Association; he believed the time had come for the establishment of a College of Teachers, and for their professional recognition, and that upon the profession rested the inauguration of measures for the perfection of our educational system.

cate and the *Journal* were united, and subsequently published by Mr. McKeen.*

THIRD ANNIVERSARY.—The Association met in Auburn, August 2d and 3d.

OFFICERS.—S. B. Woolworth, of Homer, *Pres.* C. H. Anthony, of Albany, L. Hazeltine of New York, J. R. Boyd of Jefferson Co., H. G. Winslow of Livingston Co., *Vice-Pres.* Joseph McKeen, of New York, *Cor. Sec.* S. W. Clark, of Ontario Co., *Rec. Sec.* F. Cooper, of Onondaga Co., *Treas.*

The following lectures were delivered:—"*Introductory Lecture,*" by S. B. Woolworth, President; "*On the Immeasurable Importance of the Educational Profession,*" by Mrs. Emma Willard, of Troy; "*On the Educational System of the State,*" by Prof. Lowe, of Geneva College.

Reports were presented as follows:—"*Emulation in School,*" by W. C. Kenyon; "*Union Schools,*" by N. Brittan, of Wayne Co.; "*Ventilation of School-houses,*" by J. W. Bulkley; "*Incorporation of the Association,*" by J. W. Bulkley; "*Mental Arithmetic,*" by Charles R. Coburn;† "*The School System of the State,*" (against normal schools, and in favor of teachers' classes in academies,) by Henry Howe, of Canandagua; "*A System of Education for Common Schools,*" by Wm. P. Lyon, of Westchester Co.; "*The Study of the English Language,*" by F. S. Jewell and M. Smeaton, of New York; "*Elocution,*" by Henry Mandeville.

Of this meeting Mr. McKeen remarks in *The Advocate:* "It has been productive of much real good. Some doctrines have been freely discussed which required discussion for their better development; some men have been brought into friendly intercourse who would not otherwise have known and rightly appreciated each other; some admirable suggestions have been given and received; some doubts and fears have been effectually dissipated; some high hopes and delightful anticipations respecting our common interest as teachers have been awakened and made strong in the hearts, perchance, of us all."

During this year educational asssociations were held in Maine, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Vermont, Illinois, Michigan, Maryland, and other States. The meeting of the North-western Educational Society, at Detroit, was largely attended, and the proceedings were

* THE MONTHLY EDUCATOR.—In July of this year this educational journal, 16 pages octavo, was commenced in Rochester and edited by Parsons E. Day. It was continued for one year; whether any other numbers were published we are not advised. It was a progressive and spirited sheet, and published at 50 cents per annum.—*N. Y. Teacher, Apr.*, 1860.

† Now State Superintendent of Schools, Pennsylvania.

of the highest interest. New York ranked third in point of the number of delegates in attendance. They were as follows: Ira Patchin, J. B. Thomson, S. Jenner, Edward Hazen, J. W. Bulkley, J. C. Sanders, N. P. Stanton, Lewis Cornell, E. Gray, and A. S. Barnes.

THE FOURTH ANNIVERSARY was appointed to be held in the city of New York, on the first day of August, 1849. The prevalence of the cholera in that city, however, prevented the meeting.

THE FIFTH ANNIVERSARY was held in the city of New York, August 7 and 8, 1850. The following were the officers of the Association elected in 1848:—Charles R. Coburn, of Tioga Co., *Pres.* N. Brittan of Wayne Co., W. W. Newman of Onondaga Co., W. C. Kenyon of Allegany Co., Henry Howe of Ontario Co., *Vice-Pres.* Joseph McKeen, of New York, *Cor. Sec.* James Johonnot, of Onondaga Co., *Rec. Sec.* Thomas W. Field, of New York, *Treas.*

The Association was addressed as follows: "*Introductory Address,*" by the President; "*The Peculiar Duties and Responsibilities of Teachers at the Present Time,*" by Thomas W. Valentine, of Albany; "*The Synthetic and Analytic Modes of Teaching,*" by Prof. Tayler Lewis, of Union College;* "*The Training of the Moral Faculties,*" by Prof. J. B. Thomson, of New York; "*School Organization and Classification,*" by Prof. W. F. Phelps. An essay by Miss Susan Bandelle, of Chautauqua, was read by Mr. Kennedy. "*The Profession of Teaching,*" by D. P. Lee, of Buffalo.

Distinguished educators were present from abroad and addressed the Association, viz., Hon. Henry Barnard, of Conn.; Hon. Ira Mahew, late Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mich.; M. Henri Hirzel, Director of the Asylum for the Blind at Lausanne, Switzerland; and Prof. Henning, of Knox College, Toronto.

Mr. John H. Fanning, of New York presented the following resolutions:

Whereas, The blessings of education should be universally extended, especially in this highly-favored republic, whose stability or downfall depends upon the proper use or abuse of the elective franchise; and

Whereas, An enlightened free system of public instruction seems absolutely necessary in order to accomplish so desirable a result, therefore,

Resolved, That this body recommend their fellow-teachers in the State, and their fellow-citizens generally, to give their approbation and support to the *Free School Law* again to be submitted for their decision.

Resolved, That an important principle is embodied in said law, viz., EDUCATION FOR ALL; and, hence, whatsoever defects may be found to be connected therewith, should not be permitted to sacrifice a high educational principle, but should undoubtedly be remedied by after legislation.

* This lecture gave rise to an animated debate, which resulted in the appointment of a committee to report upon the topics embraced therein.

These resolutions were fully and ably discussed by the leading members of the Association, and "the resolutions were carried with enthusiastic unanimity."

A resolution presented by Mr. Kennedy, of New York, was passed, recommending the organization of County Associations auxiliary to the State Association, in accordance with its amended constitution, and that each County Association be requested to transmit educational statistics to the Corresponding Secretary. A great impetus was given during the following year to these county organizations.

Mr. Anthony presented the following which was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to prepare and publish an address to parents requesting their coöperation with teachers in promoting the cause of education, and suggesting such thoughts on the subject as the present state of affairs may seem to demand.

THE SIXTH ANNIVERSARY was celebrated by a meeting in Buffalo, commencing August 6th, 1851, with the following officers:—John W. Bulkley, of Albany, *Pres.* N. P. Stanton, Jr., of Buffalo; George Spencer, of Utica; O. W. Morris, of New York; Xenophon Haywood, of Troy, *Vice-Pres.* Joseph McKeen, of New York, *Cor. Sec.* N. W. Benedict, of Rochester, *Rec. Sec.* T. W. Field, of Williamsburgh, *Treas.*

Of this meeting we are unable to give any thing but a fragmentary account. The Journal of Education had been suspended, and the publication of the *New York Teacher* was not commenced till the next October.

The following addresses were delivered:—"*Inaugural Address*," by the President, giving a synopsis of educational progress for the last fifty years; "*On the Ideal of Teaching*," by Rev. G. W. Hosmer, of Buffalo; "*On Motives to Study*," by Nathan Hedges, Esq., of Newark, N. Y.; "*On Physiology*," by Dr. T. S. Lambert, then of Mass.; "*On Intelligence and Moral Discipline*," by N. W. Benedict, of Rochester; "*A Word, its Influence*," a poem, by Miss M. J. Radley, of Buffalo.

Mr. Orson Kellogg, of New York, reported on the "*Analytic and Synthetic Modes of Teaching*." This report elicited a prolonged and spirited discussion.

A committee was appointed to report on the subject of Teachers' Institutes at the next session, and to inaugurate such measures as will give greater efficiency to these organizations. A large number of delegates were in attendance from other States, who took an active part in the deliberations.

THE SEVENTH ANNIVERSARY was held at Elmira, commencing August 4th, 1852, with the following officers: N. P. Stanton, Jr., of Buffalo, *Pres.* N. W. Benedict, of Rochester; D. M. Pitcher, of Owego; A. R. Wright, of Elmira; E. S. Adams, of Albany, *Vice-Pres.* J. N. McElligott, of New York, *Cor. Sec.* H. G. Winslow, of Nunda, Livington Co., *Rec. Sec.* Oliver Arey, of Buffalo, *Treas.*

The President in his inaugural address reviewed the history of the Association, and suggested measures requiring its action.

Mr. Bulkley followed in remarks relative to the meeting of last year.

Letters were read from Mr. Winslow, of Nunda, Hon. S. S. Randall, C. B. Sedgwick, of Syracuse; Hon. Ira Mayhew, of Michigan; and Hon. Horace Mann.

The lectures delivered were of more than ordinary interest, upon the following subjects:—"*On the Sanctions of Law*," by Mr. C. H. Anthony, of Albany; "*On the English Language, its History, Characteristics, and its Peculiarities in this Country*," by Prof. A. J. Upson, of Hamilton College; "*On Teachers' Institutes and the County Superintendency*," by Hon. Ira Mahew; "*Thought and Language relatively considered*," by Geo. Spencer, of Utica; "*On the necessity developed by Railroads and Telegraphs for a more advanced state of Education among the Masses*," by Rev. Dr. Murdock, of Elmira.

The following reports were also presented:—"*On Union and Central High Schools*," by W. W. Newman, of Buffalo; "*On the State of Education in Hayti*," prepared by Miss E. Howard, formerly a member of the Association, and now a missionary on that island. Read by C. R. Coburn. "*On County Examiners*," by E. P. Freeman, of Troy. The report was referred to Prof. Charles Davies, D. B. Scott, and J. H. Fanning, who reported a series of resolutions asserting the prerogatives of the profession, and against examinations of teachers by those of other professions, and in favor of Teachers' Associations in each county, to be recognized by law and clothed with the power of licensing teachers. The resolutions were adopted. "*On Teachers' Institutes*," by Mr. Winslow, of Nunda.

The subject of the distribution of public school moneys was referred to a committee to memorialize the Legislature.

A resolution was adopted unanimously, in favor of Normal Schools, Teachers' Classes in Academies and Teachers' Institutes.

The vigor and efficiency of the Association had been somewhat impaired by the interruption of 1849, and the suspension of the Journal of Education had exerted a discouraging influence. Early

in the present session, Mr. T. W. Valentine, of Albany, made a report in favor of the establishment of a Teachers' Periodical, and after full discussion, a series of resolutions were adopted, providing for a monthly octavo, in pamphlet form, at one dollar a year, to be called *The New York Teacher*, and a board of twelve editors was appointed, with Mr. Valentine as Resident Editor.

An impulse was given the Association at this meeting by which it regained the vigor it had lost by the inaction of 1849; and the establishment of the *Teacher* marked the beginning of a new and more hopeful era in its history.

THE EIGHTH ANNIVERSARY was held in Rochester, Aug. 2d, 3d, and 4th, 1853, with the following officers:—Charles Davies, L L. D., Fishkill Landing, *Pres.* W. D. Huntley, of Buffalo; D. H. Crutten den, of New York; E. A. Sheldon, of Syracuse; E. J. Hamilton, of Bath, *Vice-Pres.* Thomas W. Valentine, of Albany, *Cor. Sec.;* James Nichols, of Geneseo, *Rec. Sec.* John H. Fanning, of New York, *Treas.*

The following lectures were delivered:—"*On Method in Teaching,*" Introductory Lecture, by J. G. Ogden, of Binghamton; "*On the necessity of conforming to General Laws in our System of Instruction,*" Inaugural Address, by the President; "*On Motives to Mental Culture,*" by Henry Kiddle, of New York; "*On Practical Education,*" by A. J. Upson, of Hamilton College.

The following reports were also presented:—"*Alterations in our present system of School Laws,*" by C. R. Coburn; "*On Free Schools,*" by W. W. Newman, of Buffalo; "*On County Teachers' Associations,*" by Solomon Jenner, of New York.

Prof. Upson, from the Committee to prepare an address for general circulation among the teachers of the State, read a spirited paper, which was ordered to be published and circulated.

Resolutions were adopted, after mature deliberation, in effect as follows:

For the organization of County Associations in every county in the State, and that they should be authorized by the Legislature to license teachers.

That as we live in a Christian State, schools are necessarily Christian institutions, and that the charges of sectarianism and infidelity made against them are unfounded.

That parochial schools are not adapted to the circumstances of our population, and ought not to receive governmental support.

To memorialize the Legislature for aid in carrying out the objects of the Association.

Recognizing the right of female teachers to share in all the privileges and deliberations of this body.

Pledging the effort of the Association to increase the salaries of female teachers.

Asking the Legislature to enact a general Union Free School Law, giving to all localities, under proper restrictions, the power to establish union schools, and support the same by a tax upon the property of the districts.

Recommending the separation of the office of Superintendent from that of Secretary of State.

The attendance was very large, including many visitors from other States, and the proceedings were characterized by great earnestness and harmony.

THE NINTH ANNIVERSARY was held in the city of Oswego, Aug. 1st, 2d and 3d, 1854, with the following officers:—Hon. V. M. Rice, Superintendent of Public Instruction, *Pres.* John R. Vosburgh, of Rochester; Solomon Jenner, of New York; J. H. Hardy, of Elmira, J. Winslow, of Watertown, *Vice-Pres.* Thomas W. Valentine, Editor *N. Y. Teacher*, Albany, *Cor. Sec.* John H. Fanning, of New York; A. S. Palmer, of Utica, *Rec. Sec.* O. Morehouse, of Albion, *Treas.*

The following addresses and essays were delivered:—"*Inaugural Address*," by Hon. V. M. Rice, President; "*On Geography*," by James Johonnot, Esq., of Syracuse; "*On the Union of the Theoretical and Practical in Teaching*," by W. D. Huntley; "*On the Teacher's Calling and Duties*," by Hon. Horace Greeley; "*On the Importance of a more thorough diffusion of Agricultural Science*," by Mr. Waring, of New York; "*On Practical Education*," a Prize Essay, by Prof. M. Willson; "*On the Teacher's Mission*," a Prize Poem, by Mrs. C. H. Gildersleeve; read by Dr. Woolworth.

Prof. Willson presented a report "*On Classification of Schools and Studies belonging to different Grades.*"

Mr. James Johonnot reported on the employment of a State agent, with the following duties:

1. To assist in organizing Teachers' Institutes.
2. To report on School Systems.
3. To encourage Union Schools.
4. To awaken a general school interest.
5. To assist and coöperate in general with the State Superintendent.
6. To aid in circulating the *N. Y. Teacher*.
7. To assist teachers in getting situations, and schools in obtaining suitable teachers.
8. In general, to perform such duties as the officers of the Association may direct.

The discussion of this report, which was very spirited, resulted in the appointment of Mr. James Johonnot, of Syracuse, as State agent, at a salary of $1,000 per annum.

On motion of Mr. Valentine a resolution was adopted to apply to the Legislature for an act of incorporation.

THE TENTH ANNIVERSARY of the Association was held at Utica,

Aug. 1st, 2d and 3d, 1855, with the following officers:—R. D. Jones, of Rochester, *Pres.* H. M. Aller; Elmira, I. B. Poucher, Oswego; S. S. Kellogg, Niagara Falls; Mrs. H. B. Hewes, Syracuse, *Vice-Pres.* John H. Fanning, of New York, *Cor. Sec.* D. S. Heffran, of Utica; Daniel Cameron, of Johnstown, *Rec. Sec.* M. H. Beach, of Seneca Falls, *Treas.*

The following lectures and addresses were delivered:—"*On the Relation of Education to the Production of Wealth,*" Introductory Lecture, by E. Peshine Smith, Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction; "*On the Duties and Responsibilities of the Teacher,*" Inaugural Address, by R. D. Jones, Esq., President; "*Where do we stand in the Social Scale as Common School Teachers?*" by Mr. David B. Scott, of New York; "*On the Dignity of the Teacher's Calling,*" by Prof. Ormiston, of the Toronto Normal School. Dr. Davies read an essay "*On Unity and Standards.*" Addresses were also delivered by Ex-Governor Seymour, of New York, and Hon. J. D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Schools of Conn.

The office of State Agent, after a long debate, was abolished.

A most interesting letter was read from Hon. S. Randall, Ex-Secretary of State, urging the influence of the Association in restoring the office of County Superintendent of Common Schools, and a resolution indorsing its spirit was adopted unanimously.

THE ELEVENTH ANNIVERSARY was held in Troy, Aug. 5th, 6th and 7th, 1856, with the following officers:—Leonard Hazeltine, of New York, *Pres.* S. W. Clark, of Homer; Edward North, of Hamilton College; E. A. Sheldon, of Oswego; M. R. Atkins, of Buffalo, *Vice-Pres.* Charles H. Anthony, of Albany, *Cor. Sec.* A. G. Salisbury, of Syracuse; F. H. Weld, of Utica, *Rec. Sec.* M. H. Beach, of Seneca Falls, *Treas.*

Lectures and addresses were delivered as follows:—"*An Outline of the History and Policy of the Association,*" the Introductory Address, by L. Hazeltine, President; "*On Music—its Extent and Influence,*" by Mr. M. P. Cavert, of Amsterdam; "*On American Scholarship,*" by Prof. Edward North, of Hamilton College; "*On the Syntax of Science,*" by Dr. T. S. Lambert; "*On the Responsibilities and Duties of the Teacher,*" by Hon. S. S. Randall, of Cortland; "*On Elevated Aims in Life,*" by Prof. S. B. Cole, of Albany.

The following essays and reports were also read:—"*On the Total Abolishment of Corporal Punishment in our Schools,*" by Mrs. Coleman, of Rochester; "*On Physical Education,*" by Miss Jeannette L. Douglas, of Newburgh; "*On the Education of the Sexes together,*" by Miss S. B. Anthony, of Rochester.

These essays gave rise to spirited discussions.

During this meeting Prof. M. Willson, chairman of the Board of Editors of the *New York Teacher*, rendered a report reciting its financial embarrassment, and recommending that its financial control be vested in the hands of Mr. James Cruikshank, of Albany—he to pay its debts, the Association retaining control of its columns. The report was adopted, and Mr. Cruikshank was subsequently appointed Resident Editor. The *Teacher* for the preceding year had been under the editorial charge of Dr. Alexander Wilder, and was ably conducted. Resolutions, expressive of the high appreciation by the body of the services of Dr. W., were, on motion of Mr. Bulkley, unanimously adopted.

Resolutions of a progressive nature were presented, discussed, and received the indorsement of the Association.*

THE TWELFTH ANNIVERSARY of the N. Y. State Teachers' Association was held in Binghamton, on the 4th, 5th and 6th of August, 1857, with the following officers:—Thomas W. Valentine, of Williamsburgh, *Pres.* E. C. Pomeroy, of Buffalo; W. H. Bannister, of Fulton Co.; Henry Carver, of Binghamton; W. N. Reid, of Newburgh, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, of Albany, *Cor. Sec.* N. F. Benson, of Troy; Isaac Hobbie, of Rochester, *Rec. Sec.* C. H. Anthony, of Albany, *Treas.*

Lectures were delivered as follows:—"*Inaugural Address*," by T. W. Valentine, President; "*New York and her Common Schools*," by Rev. A. D. Mayo, of Albany; "*The Labor of Hands, Head, and Heart; or, Live and Let Live*," by Prof. Henry Fowler, of Rochester; "*The Republic; its Law of Life and its Highest Duty*," by Prof. W. F. Phelps, of the N. J. Normal School; "*The Popular Teacher*," a Poem, by James H. French, of Buffalo; "*Manual Labor Schools*," by Hon. H. C. Hickok, State Superintendent of Schools, Pennsylvania.

Addresses were also delivered by Hon. H. H. Van Dyck, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and Charles R. Coburn, of Pennsylvania, and more briefly by Isaiah Peckham, Esq., President of the N. J. State Teachers' Association; Rev. E. M. Rollo, of Greenbush, N. Y.; Prof. J. F. Stoddard, of Wayne Co., Pa.; Hon. D. S. Dickinson; Mr. Richardson, of Susquehanna Co., Pa.; Wm. Stuart, Esq., of Binghamton; Nathan Hedges, Esq., of Newark, N. J.; Charlton T. Lewis, of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Wilder, of New York.

* During the meeting of the Association a convention of the School Commissioners and City Superintendents was held, and an association organized, which met annually for several years.

Geo. W. Greene, of New York, read an essay upon "*The Development of Human Character.*"

A series of resolutions introduced by Miss Anthony and reported upon by a special committee gave rise to a warm discussion, chiefly upon the rights of colored children and youth in public schools, and the sphere and rights of women. No special action was taken by the Association.

THE THIRTEENTH ANNIVERSARY was held in Lockport, Aug. 3d, 4th and 5th, 1858, with the following officers:—George L. Farnham, Superintendent of Schools, Syracuse, *Pres.* H. G. Abbey, of New York; James Atwater, of Lockport; A. McMillan, of Utica; D. M. Pitcher, of Owego, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, of Albany, *Cor. Sec.* W. A. Welch, Catskill; E. Danforth, Buffalo, *Rec. Sec.* E. S. Adams, of Brooklyn, *Treas.*

A hearty welcome was extended to the Association, on behalf of the people of Lockport, by Ex-Governor Hunt. During the session, lectures and addresses were delivered as follows:—"*On Needed Educational Reforms,*" Inaugural Address, by President George L. Farnham; "*The Soul of Teaching,*" an Essay, by Miss Helen M. Philleo, of Boonville; "*Language; its Glory and its Shame,*" by Rev. W. Alvin Bartlett, of Owego. ["This address was brilliant, earnest, and classic, and called forth repeated applause."] "*Manhood,*" by Oliver Arey, Esq., of Buffalo; "*The School System of the State,*" by Emerson W. Keyes, Esq., Deputy Superintendent of Public Instruction; "*Primary Education,*" by Rev. S. J. May, of Syracuse.

An address was delivered by H. L. Stuart, Esq., of New York, and brief addresses were also made by Messrs. Hammond, of Massachusetts; Wm. Roberts, of Philadelphia; Geo. D. Phelps, of Indiana; Wisner and Lamont, of Lockport; Hon. V. M. Rice, of Buffalo; Guffin, of Iowa; Bulkley, Stowits, Cavert, and James M. Clark.

Pending the appointment of committees, the "Women's Rights" question was presented and discussed at length.

Mr. M. P. Cavert, from the Committee on "*Prizes in Schools,*" made an able report, closing with the following resolution, which gave rise to a most animated debate:

Resolved, That the practice of offering prizes in our schools is wrong in tendency, operating mischievously upon the social, moral and intellectual nature of those whom it is intended to benefit.

Several amendments were offered, and the question was several times before the house, but no vote was reached.

Mr. Sheldon offered a series of resolutions on moral education:

1. Recognizing its paramount importance.
2. Asserting its neglect, and recommending text-books on morals.
3. The Bible the basis—its teachings to be inculcated through the example of the teacher.

A long debate ensued. The first resolution was adopted.

Dr. T. S. Lambert presented a voluminous report on Evening Academies and Colleges.

The following stated question for discussion elicited a long and spicy debate:—"*The Effect of High Intellectual Culture upon the Respectability and Efficiency of Manual Labor.*"

A large number of resolutions, on various topics, were introduced, and either laid upon the table or referred to committees to report at next meeting.

Delegates were present and participated in the exercises, from Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Indiana, Iowa, Pennsylvania, Kansas, and Canada.

THE FOURTEENTH ANNIVERSARY was held in Poughkeepsie, Aug. 2d, 3d and 4th, 1859, with the following officers:—Oliver Arey, of Buffalo, *Pres.* E. S. Adams, of Brooklyn; J. W. Barker, of Niagara Falls; W. A. Welch, of Catskill; C. H. Dann, of Walworth, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, of Albany, *Rec. Sec.* L. H. Cheney, of Onondaga Co.; James Atwater, of Lockport, *Rec. Sec.;* Charles H. Anthony, of Albany, *Treas.*

The following lectures were presented during the session:—"*The Teacher's Office,*" Inaugural Address, by Oliver Arey, President; "*Self-Education of Teachers,*" by Peter Rouget, Esq., of Brooklyn; "*Arnold as a Model Teacher,*" by Rev. E. M. Rollo, of Greenbush; "*What shall we Teach?*" by F. B. Snow, Esq., of Lyons; "*The Chemistry of the Sunbeam, or the Celestial Origin of Terrestrial Forces,*" by E. L. Youmans, M. D.

Also the following reports:—"*On the Association of Boys and Girls in Composition and Declamation,*" by Miss E. C. Stanton; "*On Physical Training,*" by Dr. T. S. Lambert; "*On Qualifications of Teachers,*" by E. D. Weller; "*On a Uniform System of Public Instruction for the State of New York,*" by E. C. Pomeroy, of Buffalo.

The two reports last named were laid over till the next meeting, and their discussion made a special order.

The following question was discussed at some length, "*In what way, and to what extent, ought Oral Instruction to be given in School?*" by Messrs. G. H. Stowits, D. H. Cruttenden, C. H. Dann, J. W. Barker, Prof. Thomson, A. B. Wiggin and Nathan Hedges.

Dr. Davies announced the decease of Hon. Horace Mann, and appropriate resolutions were adopted.

Mr. Cruikshank, from the Committee on Incorporation, reported that the necessary steps have been taken by the officers and that the Association was incorporated under the general Act.

THE FIFTEENTH ANNIVERSARY was held in Syracuse, July 31st, and Aug. 1st and 2d, 1860, with the following officers:—James N. McElligott, L L. D., of New York, *Pres.* James Johonnot, of Syracuse; William N. Reid, of Newburgh; Asa Baker, of Johnstown; E. A. Charlton, of Lockport, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, of Albany, *Cor. Sec.* James Atwater, of Lockport; Geo. N. Harris, of Syracuse, *Rec. Sec.* William H. Hughes, of Albany, *Treas.*

The Association was welcomed by his honor, Mayor Westcott, followed by Major John J. Peck, who alluded to the first organization of the Association, in that city, fifteen years before, and gave a brief sketch of the progress of the Syracuse Schools.

Lectures were delivered as follows:—"*The Prerequisites to Success in Teaching*," Inaugural Address, by Dr. J. N. McElligott, President; "*Some of the Fundamental Principles of Teaching as a Science*," by Henry Kiddle, Esq., of New York; "*The School System of the State; its Defects and the Remedies*," by Hon. H. H. Van Dyck, State Superintendent of Public Instruction; "*On Universal Education*," by Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, of the N. J. Normal School; "*Music*," a poem, by J. W. Barker, Esq., of Buffalo.

The following reports were presented:—"*On Qualification of Teachers*," by Mr. Weller; "*On Oral Instruction*," by Prof. J. B. Thomson; "*On the True Basis of Gradation in our Public Schools*," by Miss Mary S. Anthony; "*On the Influence of Motives in Education*," by Mrs. Gildersleeve; "*On the Natural Order in the Development of the Human Faculties*," by Mr. D. H. Cruttenden; "*On the System of Phonetic Teaching as practiced in the Primary Schools of Syracuse*," by Prof. Phelps.

The report "*On Uniform System of Public Instruction*" was taken up, and the resolutions discussed at length. They embrace the following provisions:—

1. A permanent unitary power, having supreme control.
2. That this is not incompatible with republican government.
3. A State Board of Education, etc.

A committee was appointed to embody the provisions of the report in an act for the revision of the State Constitution and report at next meeting.

THE SIXTEENTH ANNIVERSARY was held in Watertown, July 20th,

21st and 22d, 1861, with the following officers:—E. A. Sheldon, of Oswego, *Pres.* J. W. Cole, of Troy; W. W. Newman, of Buffalo; A. H. Lewis, of Binghamton; Albert Allen, of Ogdensburgh, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, of Albany, *Cor. Sec.* James Atwater, of Lockport; A. H. Clapp, of Onondaga Co., *Rec. Sec.* William N. Reid, of Newburgh, *Treas.*

Lectures and addresses were delivered as follows:—"*Inaugural Address*," by E. A. Sheldon, President; "*The Relation of the School to the College, and of the College to the School*," by Rev. Dr. S. W. Fisher, President of Hamilton College; "*Pestalozzian or Object Lesson Teaching*," by N. A. Calkins, of New York; "*The Study of Natural History*," by Prof. P. A. Chadbourne, of Bowdoin and Williams Colleges; "*The True Order of Studies*," by Rev. Thomas Hill, D. D., L L. D., of Antioch College.

The following reports were also presented:—"*On means to prevent unnecessary changes of Text-books in our Public Schools*," by M. P. Cavert; "*On Phonetic Teaching*," by George L. Farnham, of Syracuse; "*On the Number of Hours in School*," by E. D. Weller, of Oswego; "*On Rate Bills*," by J. B. Thomson, of New York. [To abolish rate bills and raise school money by tax.] "*Standing Orders and Rules for Meetings of the Association*," by James Cruikshank, Corresponding Secretary; "*Course of Instruction for Primary Schools*," by Dr. Lambert, of Peekskill; "*On School Amendments to the State Constitution*," by M. P. Cavert. [Providing for a State Board of Education to appoint State Superintendent and Secretaries, and to have entire control of school legislation and of the distribution of school funds.]

The following resolution in Dr. Lambert's report was adopted:—

Whereas, Nature has intended that the child should acquire the elements of all its knowledge through the senses; and whereas, the orderly exercise of these greatly increases their power and disciplines the mind to give attention at will, and fits it to accurately express ideas which it has accurately acquired and accurately possesses, and will be the means of making the pupil thorough in the rudiments of a higher education and develop in him a desire to obtain it;—

Resolved, That this Association recommends to all teachers to use their influence in favor of introducing "object lessons" into all primary schools, as the first step toward real acquisition and as a desideratum toward making the way of both scholar and pupil more pleasant.

THE SEVENTEENTH ANNIVERSARY of the Association was held in Rochester, July 29th, 30th and 31st, 1862, with the following officers:—James Cruikshank, L L. D., of Albany, *Pres.* Samuel Slade, of Buffalo; N. A. Calkins, of New York; George L. Farnham, of Syracuse; Alfred G. Mudge, of Rochester, *Vice-Pres.* David H. Cochran, A. M., *Cor. Sec.* A. H. Clapp, Baldwinsville; George H. Stowits, Buffalo, *Rec. Sec.* J. W. Cole, of Troy, *Treas.*

This meeting, though perhaps not the largest, was one of the most harmonious ever held in the State, and the character of the addresses, and the principles brought out in the reports and discussions, entitle it to rank in importance with any of its predecessors.

The President's Inaugual Address gave a succinct history of educational movements in the State from the establishment of the school system to the present time.

The following addresses and lectures were delivered:—"*Waste in Education*," by Prof. Charlton T. Lewis, A. M., of Troy University; "*Radicalism*," by Rev. Dr. E. B. Fairfield, President of Hillsdale College, Mich.; "*Intellectual Development*," by Prof. John F. Stoddard, A. M., of New York; "*The Teacher and the Teacher's Work*," by Rev. George W. Hosmer, D. D., of Buffalo; "*The Natural Order of the Development of the Human Faculties*," by H. B. Wilbur, M. D., Superintendent of the N. Y. State Asylum for Idiots.

Henry Howe, Esq., of Canandagua, read an historical essay.

Mr. George H. Stowits presented a report "*On the Condition of Education*," which was discussed at length.

Mr. E. A. Sheldon presented a report of the committee "*On Compensation of Female Teachers.*" After a long debate the following resolutions were adopted:—

Resolved, That the compensation now paid female teachers is not a fair equivalent for the value of the services rendered, and should be materially increased.

Resolved, That in the present organization of society it is neither expedient nor just to make the compensation of the two sexes equal when their labor comes in competition.

The topics embraced in Dr. Wilbur's and Prof. Lewis' lectures also elicited spirited debate.

Several resolutions were introduced and discussed, and committees appointed to report upon the topics embraced in them at the next meeting.

THE EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in the city of Troy, July 28th, 29th and 30th, 1863. The following is a list of the officers:—E. C. Pomeroy, Buffalo, *Pres.* Wm. N. Barringer, of Troy; Henry Fowler, of Auburn; Edward Webster, of Rochester; E. S. Adams, of Brooklyn, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, Albany, *Cor. Sec.* M. M. Merrill, of Naples; Wm. T. Graff, of New York, *Rec. Sec.* Benjamin Edson, Albany, *Treas.*

The following addresses were delivered:—"*Public Education*," Inaugural Discourse, by E. C. Pomeroy, President; "*The Special Adaptation of the Bible as an Educator*," by Rev. B. G. Northrop, State Agent of the Board of Education, Massachusetts; "*Inductive, or Pestalozzian Methods of Study*," by Lowell Mason, Musical

Doctor, Orange, N. J.; "*Mental Culture—its Relations to Object Teaching*," by Prof. M. McVicar, Brockport; "*On the Conservation of Pure English Style*," by Rev. Alexander S. Twombly, Albany; "*The Minor Morals*," a poem, by Rev. J. E. King, of Ft. Edward.

Dr. Dio Lewis, of Boston, assisted by Miss Haines, gave an exhibition in "*Lewis' Gymnastics*," explaining the system.

Dr. James Cruikshank reported in behalf of the Standing Committee "*On Condition of Education.*" The recommendations of the committee were adopted, viz.:—

For a committee to suggest to the State Superintendent amendments to the new school law; also

To consider the subject of a State Board of Examiners for professional certificates.

To confer with a committee from the Convention of Officers of Colleges and Academies.

And that the officers elect present at the next meeting a curriculum of studies for common schools.

The committee on Dr. Wilbur's Lecture (of last year) reported through their chairman, Mr. E. A. Sheldon. The report was recommitted and subsequently the following resolutions were reported, discussed at length, and adopted.

Whereas, Observation is the primary condition of knowledge, therefore,

Resolved, That the perceptive faculties should be carefully cultivated by the parent and the teacher.

Resolved, That in all early education the paramount object is the development of the child's faculties, and therefore only those subjects of instruction should be employed which are best adapted to quicken perception and awaken thought, both moral and intellectual, and the teacher should impart or assist the child to acquire only that amount of scientific truth which has a practical bearing upon the facts falling within the child's own observation, or upon kindred or related facts furnished by the teacher, or by reading, and such as may lead him to further acquisitions.

Resolved, That language, being essential to the full exercise of the child's faculties, and being necessary to man's condition as a social being, as next in importance to the education of the senses, it should be cultivated as an aid to the memory, as a means, and lastly as an instrument of thought, and taught after the following order: the idea first, language afterward, and that in the relation of words, as names, or expressive of ideas, reference should be had not alone to the current language of the circle in which the child moves, but to his wants and necessities in naming and describing objects in nature, and in the utterance of thought.

The following reports were also presented:—"*On Organizing and Conducting Teachers' Institutes*," by Emerson W. Keyes, Esq.; "*On the Causes of the Alleged Inequality in the Attendance of Boys and Girls at our Higher Schools*," by Mr. Webster, of Rochester, and Mr. Weller, of Oswego.

Letters were read from President Hill, of Harvard College; Hon. J. D. Philbrick, of Boston; Hon. J. S. Adams, Secretary of Board of Education, Vt.; Rev. Chancellor Ferris, of N. Y. University; Hon. P. J. O. Chauveau, Chief Superintendent of Public Education, Lower Canada; Prof. Arnold Guyot, and his Excellency, Governor Seymour.

THE NINETEENTH ANNIVERSARY was held at Buffalo, Aug. 2d, 3d and 4th, 1864, with the following officers:—J. B. Thomson, L L. D., New York, *Pres.* Rev. J. E. King, Fort Edward; H. H. Martin, Troy; Thomas Dransfield, Rochester; Aaron Chadwick, Brooklyn, *Vice-Pres.* James Cruikshank, L L. D., Albany, *Cor. Sec.* M. M. Merrill, Naples; A. Van Valin, Poughkeepsie, *Rec. Sec.* Benjamin Edson, Albany, *Treas.*

The following lectures and communications were delivered in the course of the meeting:—"*Inaugural Address*," by the President; "*On the Sources of the Teacher's Power*," by Prof. Edward North; "*On the Public Schools of Rochester and their Examinations*," by Prof. Edward Webster; "*On the System and Method of Logical Analysis, as related to the Study of the English Language*," by Prof. F. S. Jewell; "*On the Relations of Education to Life*," by Rev. Charles G. Ames, of Albany.

Reports were presented, on the part of the Standing Committees, by Dr. James Cruikshank, "*On the Condition of Education*;" by Dr. Charles Davies, "*On the Proceedings of the University Convocation*;" and by Mr. C. H. Gildersleeve, "*On Military Training, as connected with our Public Schools.*" In connection with the first report, the following resolutions, with others, were adopted:—

Resolved, That the History, Polity and Constitution of our government should be taught in all our schools, wherein the maturity of the pupils is equal to the subjects.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to report at the next meeting a plan of classification, and curriculum of studies for common schools.

Resolved, That the Corresponding Secretary be instructed to confer with the Secretaries of the other State Teachers' Associations and with the Association of Teachers of Upper Canada concerning their plan of organization, the questions discussed and the results accomplished, and such other matters of educational interest as he may deem expedient; and that to this end he be authorized to prepare such circulars as may be necessary in gathering this information.

Interesting discussions were held upon the question, "*What are the Proper Spheres of the Inductive and Deductive Methods of Instruction?*" and also upon the subjects of the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the interests of education, and the advancement of the pupils in our schools, require frequent and thorough public examinations, both oral and written. Presented by Prof. Webster, and adopted.

Resolved, That with a school system so organized that each teacher shall be a military instructor, and each boy a scholar and a soldier, the country will possess a guarantee for peace, and hold a moral power in its defensive and retributive skill, which will be stronger than innumerable iron-clads and countless fortifications of granite. Proposed by Mr. C. H. Gildersleeve, and referred to a special committee.

Adjourned to meet on the last Tuesday in July, 1865, at such place as the Executive Committee shall select.

CONSTITUTION.

Preamble.—The Teachers of the State of New York, in convention assembled, believing that the best interests of every community are founded upon sound and thorough elementary education, and that without unity of feeling and concert of action on the part of teachers, this can rarely, if ever, be attained, and further, that the true dignity of our profession calls for associated action and combined effort, do hereby agree to form ourselves into a Teachers' State Association, to be governed by the Constitution subjoined.

ART. I. This Association shall be styled The New York State Teachers' Association.

ART. II. Any teacher, of good moral character, may become a member of this Association by signing this Constitution; and no member of the Association shall be considered as having forfeited his or her membership by the withdrawal, temporarily or otherwise, from the active duties of teaching.

ART. III. The officers of this Association shall consist of a President, four Vice-Presidents, a Corresponding Secretary, two Recording Secretaries, and a Treasurer, who shall be elected annually by ballot, and who shall discharge the duties incident to such officers in similar associations; and in case the Association shall fail, from any cause, to elect its officers annually, those elected the previous year will remain in office until their successors be chosen. The officers of the Association shall constitute the Executive Committee.

ART. IV. This Association shall meet, at least as often as once a year, at such time and place as may be designated by resolution.

ART. V. Fifty members present shall be deemed necessary to constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ART. VI. All County Associations of Teachers may become auxiliary by giving due notice of the same to the Recording Secretaries.

ART. VII. This Constitution may be altered or amended with the consent of two-thirds of its members present, at a regular meeting, but not without a formal notice of the same, presented in writing, to the Secretaries at least one day previous.

BY-LAWS.

I. OF ANNUAL DUES.—The annual payment of one dollar by male members of the Association, and fifty cents by female members, shall constitute continued membership of the Association.

Nothing in this article shall be understood to interfere with the present membership of this body, provided the above payment be made. [Adopted 1856.]

II. OF ANNUAL ELECTIONS.—The Association shall proceed to elect its officers on the convening of the Society for the afternoon session of the last day [of each annual meeting.] Nominations may be made, *viva voce*, and the President shall appoint three Tellers; whereupon the Association shall proceed to vote by ballot, separately, for the several officers for the ensuing year, and the persons obtaining a majority of all the votes cast shall be declared elected. [Adopted 1856.]

Upon the opening of the morning session of the last day of each annual meeting the President, with the concurrence of the house, shall appoint a committee consisting of one member from each judicial district to nominate officers for the ensuing year; said committee to report in the afternoon of the same day, immediately after the reports of the officers of the Association have been received; and the Association shall thereupon proceed to the election by ballot, the vote for all the officers being had on one ticket. [Amendment adopted July 29, 1862.]

III. OF THE TREASURER.—1. All moneys due the Association, or donated to the same, shall be paid to the Treasurer.

2. All bills against the Association requiring payment during the interim of the meetings shall be presented to the chairman of the Finance Committee, audited by him, and shall be paid by the Treasurer on an order from the President, countersigned by the Secretary.

3. The Treasurer shall report annually to the Association, in detail, the receipts and expenditures of the treasury. [Adopted 1857.]

STANDING RESOLUTIONS.

Resolved, That McElligott's Debater be adopted as the Manual on Parliamentary Rules for the guidance of this Association. [Adopted 1857.]

Resolved, That all persons hereafter invited to address this Association be respectfully requested to confine their remarks to one half-hour; and all persons making reports, to fifteen minutes. [Adopted 1858.]

Resolved, That the Order of Exercises for future meetings of the Association be prepared by the President after consultation by letter with the members of the Executive Board. [Adopted 1859.]

Resolved, That the payment of the annual dues be, hereafter, considered as in advance for the year commencing with the first session of the convention at which said payment is made. [Adopted 1859.]

Resolved, That the Board of Officers of this Association be instructed to hire a room in the city of Albany, at an annual expense not exceeding fifty dollars, as the office of the Association and a place of rendezvous for the teachers of the State, and that the same be under the care of the Editor of the *Teacher*. [Adopted 1860.]

OFFICERS FOR 1865.

President.—Edward North, Hamilton College, Clinton.

Vice-Presidents.—Edward Webster, Rochester; J. D. Steele, Newark; F. S. Jewell, Albany; Henry Carver, Cortland.

Corresponding Secretary.—James Cruikshank, Albany.

Recording Secretaries.—Edward Danforth, Troy; Thomas Dransfield, Rochester.

Treasurer.—H. L. Rockwell, Munnsville.

IX. STUDIES AND CONDUCT.

SUGGESTIONS BY MEN EMINENT IN LETTERS AND AFFAIRS.

SIR THOMAS WYATT TO HIS SON.

INASMUCH as now you are come to some years of understanding, and that you gather within yourself some fame of honesty, I thought that I should not lose my labour wholly, if now I did something advertise you to take the sure foundations and stablished opinions that leadeth to honesty.

And here, I call not honesty that men commonly call honesty, as reputation for riches, for authority, or some like thing; but that honesty, that I dare well say your grandfather had rather left to me than all the lands he did leave me,—that was, wisdom, gentleness, soberness, desire to do good, friendship to get the love of many, and truth above all the rest. A great part to have all these things, is to desire to have them. And although glory and honest name are not the very ends wherefore these things are to be followed, yet surely they must needs follow them, as light followeth the fire, though it were kindled for warmth. Out of these things the chiefest and infallible ground is the dread and reverence of God, whereupon shall ensue the eschewing of the contraries of these said virtues; that is to say, ignorance, unkindness, rashness, desire of harm, unquiet enmity, hatred, many and crafty falsehoods, the very root of all shame and dishonesty. I say, the only dread and reverence of God, that seeth all things, is the defence of the creeping in of all these mischiefs into you. And for my part, although I do well say there is no man that would wish his son better than I; yet, on my faith, I had rather have you lifeless, than subject to these vices. Think and imagine always that you are in presence of some honest men that you know; as Sir John Russell, your father-in-law, your uncle Parson, or some other such; and ye shall, if at any time ye find a pleasure in naughty touches, remember what shame it were before these men to do naughtily. And sure this imagination shall cause you to remember that the pleasure of a naughty deed is soon past, and the rebuke, shame, and the note thereof shall remain ever. Then, if these things ye take for vain imaginations, yet remember

that it is certain, and no imagination, that ye are always in the presence and sight of God; and though you see Him not, so much is the reverence the more to be had, for that He seeth, and is not seen.

Men punish with shame as greatest punishment on earth—yea, greater than death; but His punishment is, first, the withdrawing of His favour and grace, and, in leaving His hand to rule the stern, to let the ship run without guide to its own destruction; and suffereth so the man that He forsaketh to run headlong, as subject to all mishaps, and at last, with shameful end, to everlasting shame and death. You may see continual examples both of one sort and of the other; and the better, if ye mark them well that yourself are come of; and consider well your good grandfather, what things there were in him, and his end. And they that knew him, noted him thus: first and chiefly, to have a great reverence of God, and good opinion of godly things. Next, that there was no man more pitiful; no man more true of his word; no man faster to his friends; no man diligenter or more circumspect, which thing, both the kings his masters noted in him greatly. And if these things, and especially the grace of God, that the fear of God always kept with him, had not been, the chances of this troublesome world that he was in had long ago overwhelmed him. This preserved him in prison from the hands of the tyrant,* that could find in his heart to see him racked; from two years' or more imprisonment in Scotland, in irons and stocks; from the danger of sudden changes and commotions divers, till that well-beloved of many, hated of none, in his fair age and good reputation, godly and christianly he went to Him that loved him, for that he always had Him in reverence. And of myself, I must be a near example unto you of my folly and nothingness, that hath, as I well observed, brought me into a thousand dangers and hazards, enmities, hatreds, prisonments, despites, and indignations; but that God hath of His goodness chastised me, and not cast me clean out of His favour; which thing I can impute to nothing but the goodness of my good father, that, I dare well say, purchased with continual request of God His grace towards me, more than I regarded or considered myself; and a little part to the small fear I had of God in the most of my rage, and the little delight that I had in mischief. You, therefore, if ye be sure and have God in your sleeve to call you to His grace at last, venture hardly by mine example upon naughty unthriftiness in trust of His goodness; and, besides the shame, I dare lay ten to one ye shall perish

* Richard the Third.

in the adventure; for trust me that my wish or desire of God for you shall not stand you in as much effect as I think my father's did for me. We are not all accepted of Him. Begin, therefore, betimes. Make God and goodness your foundations. Make your examples of wise and honest men; shoot at that mark; be no mocker —mocks follow them that delight therein. He shall be sure of shame that feeleth no grief in other men's shames. Have your friends in a reverence, and think unkindness to be the greatest offence, and least punished among men; but so much the more to be dreaded, for God is justiser upon that alone. Love well and agree with your wife; for where is noise and debate in the house, there is unquiet dwelling; and much more when it is in one bed. Frame well yourself to love and rule well and honestly your wife as your fellow, and she shall love and reverence you as her head. Such as you are to her, such shall she be unto you. Obey and reverence your father-in-law, as you would me; and remember that long life followeth them that reverence their fathers and elders; and the blessing of God, for good agreement between the wife and husband, is fruit of many children.

Read oft this my letter, and it shall be as though I had often written to you; and think that I have herein printed a fatherly affection to you. If I may see that I have not lost my pain, mine shall be the contentation, and yours the profit; and, upon condition that you follow my advertisement, I send you God's blessing and mine, and as well to come to honesty as to increase of years.

SIR HENRY SIDNEY TO HIS SON, PHILIP SIDNEY.*

I have received two letters from you, one written in Latin, the other in French, which I take in good part, and will you to exercise that practice of learning often; for that will stand you in most stead in that profession of life that you are born to live in. And since this is my first letter that ever I did write to you, I will not that it be all empty of some advices, which my natural care for you provoketh me to wish you to follow, as documents to you in this your tender age.

Let your first action be the lifting up of your mind to Almighty God, by hearty prayer; and feelingly digest the words you speak in prayer, with continual meditation, and thinking of Him to whom you pray, and of the matter for which you pray. And use this as an ordinary act, and at an ordinary hour; whereby the time itself

* Sir Philip Sidney, to whom this letter was addressed, was then twelve years of age, at school at Shrewsbury.

will put you in remembrance to do that which you are accustomed to do. In that time apply your study to such hours as your discreet master doth assign you, earnestly; and the time (I know) he will so limit, as shall be both sufficient for your learning, and safe for your health. And mark the sense and matter of all that you read, as well as the words. So shall you both enrich your tongue with words, and your wit with matter; and judgment will grow as years groweth in you. Be humble and obedient to your master; for unless you frame yourself to obey others, yea, and feel in yourself what obedience is, you shall never be able to teach others how to obey you. Be courteous of gesture, and affable to all men, with diversity of reverence, according to the dignity of the person. There is nothing that winneth so much, with so little cost. Use moderate diet, so as, after your meat, you may find your wit fresher, and not duller, and your body more lively, and not more heavy. Seldom drink wine, and yet sometimes do, lest being enforced to drink upon the sudden, you should find yourself inflamed. Use exercise of body, but such as is without peril of your joints or bones. It will increase your force, and enlarge your breath. Delight to be cleanly as well in all parts of your body as in your garments. It shall make you grateful in each company; and, otherwise, loathsome. Give yourself to be merry; for you degenerate from your father, if you find not yourself most able in will and body to do any thing when you be most merry; but let your mirth be ever void of all scurrility, and biting words to any man; for a wound given by a word is oftentimes harder to be cured, than that which is given with the sword. Be you rather a hearer and bearer away of other men's talk, than a beginner or procurer of speech; otherwise you shall be counted to delight to hear yourself speak. If you hear a wise sentence or an apt phrase, commit it to your memory, with respect of the circumstance when you shall speak it. Let never oath be heard to come out of your mouth, nor words of ribaldry; detest it in others, so shall custom make to yourself a law against it in yourself. Be modest in each assembly; and rather be rebuked of light fellows for a maiden-like shamefacedness, than of your sad friends for pert boldness. Think upon every word before you utter it; and remember how nature hath rampired up (as it were) the tongue with teeth, lips, yea, and hair without the lips, and all betokening reins, or bridles, for the loose use of that member. Above all things, tell no untruth—no, not in trifles. The custom of it is naughty; and let it not satisfy you, that for a time the hearers take it for a truth; for after it will be known as it is, to your shame;

for there can not be a greater reproach to a gentleman than to be accounted a liar. Study and endeavour yourself to be virtuously occupied. So shall you make such an habit of well-doing in you, that you shall not know how to do evil, though you would. Remember, my son, the noble blood you are descended of, by your mother's side; and think, that only by virtuous life and good action you may be an ornament to that illustrious family; and otherwise, through vice and sloth, you shall be counted *labes generis*, one of the greatest curses that can happen to man. Well, my little Philip, this is enough for me, and too much, I fear, for you. But if I shall find that this light meal of digestion nourish any thing the weak stomach of your young capacity, I will, as I find the same grow stronger, feed it with tougher food. Your loving father, so long as you live in the fear of God.

SIR THOMAS BODLEIGH TO FRANCIS BACON.

My Good Cousin,—According to your request in your letter (dated the 19th of Oct. at Orleans) I received here the 18th of Dec., I have sent you by your merchant 30*l.* sterling, for your present supply; and had sent you a greater sum, but that my extraordinary charge this year hath utterly unfurnished me. And now, cousin, though I will be no severe exacter of accounts, either of your money or of time, yet, for the love I bear you, I am very desirous both to satisfy myself and your friends, how you prosper in your travels, and how you find yourself bettered thereby, either in knowledge of God or of the world; the rather, because the days you have already spent abroad are now both sufficient to give you light how to fix yourself and end with counsel, and accordingly to shape your course constantly upon it. Besides, it is a vulgar scandal to travellers, that few return more religious than they went forth; wherein both my hope and request is to you, that your principal care be to hold your foundation, and to make no other use of informing yourself in the corruptions and superstitions of other nations, than only thereby to engage your own heart more firmly to the truth. You live, indeed, in a country of two several professions; and you shall return a novice, if you be not able to give an account of the ordinances, strength, and progress of each, in reputation and party, and how both are supported, balanced, and managed by the state, as being the contrary humours in the temper of predominacy, whereof the health or disease of that body doth consist. These things you will observe, not only as an Englishman, whom it may concern to know what interest his country may expect in the consciences of their neighbours;

but also as a Christian, to consider both the beauties and blemishes, the hopes and dangers, of the Church in all places. Now for the world, I know it too well to persuade you to dive into the practices thereof; rather stand upon your own guard against all that attempts you thereunto, or may practise upon you in your conscience, reputation, or your purse. Resolve no man is wise or safe but he that is honest; and let this persuasion turn your studies and observations from the compliment and impostures of the debased age, to more real grounds of wisdom, gathered out of the story of times past, and out of the government of the present state. Your guide to this is, the knowledge of the country and the people among whom you live; for the country, though you can not see all places, yet if, as you pass along, you inquire carefully, and further help youself with books that are written of the cosmography of those parts, you shall sufficiently gather the strength, riches, traffic, havens, shipping, commodities, vent, and the wants and disadvantages of all places. Wherein, also, for your own good hereafter, and for your friends, it will be fit to note their buildings, furnitures, their entertainments; all their husbandry, and ingenious inventions in whatsoever concerneth either pleasure or profit.

For the people, your traffic among them, while you learn their language, will sufficiently instruct you in their habilities, dispositions, and humours, if you a little enlarge the privacy of your own nature, to seek acquaintance with the best sort of strangers, and restrain your affections and participation for your own countrymen of whatsoever condition. In the story of France, you have a large and pleasant field in three lines of their kings,—to observe their alliances and successions, their conquests, their wars, especially with us; their councils, their treaties; and all rules and examples of experience and wisdom, which may be lights and remembrances to you hereafter, to judge of all occurrents both at home and abroad.

Lastly, for the government: your end must not be, like an intelligencer, to spend all your time in fishing after the present news, humours, graces, or disgraces of court, which happily may change before you come home; but your better and more constant ground will be, to know the consanguinities, alliances, and estates of their princes; the proportion between the nobility and magistracy; the constitutions of their courts of justice; the state of their laws, as well for the making as the execution thereof; how the sovereignty of the king infuseth itself into all acts and ordinances; how many ways they lay impositions and taxations, and gather revenues to the crown; what be the liberties and servitudes of all degrees; what

discipline and preparation for wars; what inventions for increase of traffic at home, for multiplying their commodities, encouraging arts, manufactures, or of worth in any kind; also what good establishment, to prevent the necessities and discontentment of people, to cut off suits at law, and duels, to suppress thieves, and all disorders.

To be short,—because my purpose is not to bring all your observations to heads, but only by these few to let you know what manner of return your friends expect from you,—let me, for all these and all the rest, give you this one note, which I desire you to observe as the counsel of a friend: not to spend your spirits, and the precious time of your travel, in a captious prejudice and censuring of all things, nor in an infectious collection of base vices and fashions of men and women, or general corruption of these times, which will be of use only among humorists, for jests and table-talk; but rather strain your wits and industry soundly to instruct yourself in all things between heaven and earth which may tend to virtue, wisdom, and honour, and which may make your life more profitable to your country, and yourself more comfortable to your friends, and acceptable to God. And, to conclude, let all these riches be treasured up, not only in your memory, where time may lessen your stock; but rather in good writings, and books of account, which will keep them safe for your use hereafter. And if in this time of your liberal traffic, you will give me an advertisement of your commodities in these kinds, I will make you as liberal a return from myself and your friends here as I shall be able. And so commending all your endeavours to Him that must either wither or prosper them, I very kindly bid you farewell.

LORD STRAFFORD TO HIS SON. (*Extracts.*)

My dearest Will,—Be careful to take the advice of those friends which are by me desired to advise you for your education. Serve God diligently morning and evening; and recommend yourself unto Him and have Him before your eyes in all your ways. Lose not the time of your quiet, but gather those seeds of virtue and knowledge which may be of use to yourself and comfort to your friends, for the rest of your life. Attend thereto with patience and refrain yourself from anger. Suffer not sorrow to cast you down, but with cheerfulness and good courage go on the race you are to run, in all sobriety and truth. In all your duties and devotions towards God, rather perform them joyfully than pensively, for God loves a cheerful giver. And God Almighty of His infinite goodness bless you and your children's children.—[*Written shortly before his execution.*]

☞ *Please assist in perfecting this Catalogue of*

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS.

First Year.	Month.	Last Ye'r.	Vol.	PRINCIPAL TITLE. PLACE OF PUBLICATION. FIRST EDITOR.
1811	Jan'y.	1811	I.	Juvenile Monitor, or Educational Magazine. *New York.* A. Picket.
1819	.....	....	.....	Academical Herald and Journal of Education, (Prospectus.) *York, Pa* S. Bacon.
1818	Feb.	1819	I.	The Academician. *New York.* A. and J. W. Picket.
1824	.....	1830	VII.	The Sunday-School Magazine. *Philadelphia.* American Sunday School Union.
1826	Jan'y.	1830	V.	The American Journal of Education. *Boston.* W. Russell.
1827	July.	1843	XV.	Quar. Register and Jour. of Am. Educ. Soc. *Boston.* E. Cornelius and B. B. Edwards.
1827	"	1832	IV.	Quarterly Journal of Am. Educ. Society. *Boston.* E. Cornelius and B. B. Edwards.
1828	April.	....	.....	Teacher's Guide and Parent's Assistant. (New Series,) *Boston.* S. G. Goodrich.
1829	"	1829	I.	The School Magazine. *Boston.* W. C. Woodbridge.
1830	.....	....	.....	The Education Reporter. *Boston.* A. Rand.
1830	Jan'y.	1830	I.	The Belles Lettres Gazette. *Philadelphia.* J. Brown.
1830	June.	1849	XX.	The Sunday-School Journal. (Gaz. of Educ.) *Phila. and N. Y.* Am. S. S. Union.
1831	.....	....	.....	Journal of Instruction. *Philadelphia.* Philadelphia Association of Teachers.
1831	July.	1831	I.	The Academic Pioneer. *Cincinnati.* Western Academic Institute.
1831	Aug.	1839	IX.	American Annals of Education. *Boston.* W. C Woodbridge.
1831	Dec.	1831	I.	Reporter and Journal of Education. *Boston.* W. C. Woodbridge.
1832	Jan'y.	1833	II.	Juvenile Rambler, or Family and School Journal. *Boston.*
1832	April.	....	.....	Eclectic Institute Journal of Education. *Lexington, Ky.* B. O. Peers.
1832	July.	1832	I.	Family Lyceum. *Boston.* J. Holbrook.
1832	.....	....	.....	Journal of Humanity. *Boston.*
1833	June.	....	.....	Southern Journal of Education. *Georgia.*
1834	.....	....	.....	The Inciter. *Lancaster, Penn.*
1834	.....	....	.....	The Schoolmaster and Academic Journal. *Oxford, Ohio.*
1835	Jan'y.	1835	I.	Monthly Journal of Education. *Philadelphia.* E. C. Wines.
1836	Jan'y.	1840	V.	Common School Assistant. *New York.* J. O. Taylor.
1836	"	1836	I	Schoolmaster and Advocate of Education. *Princeton.* E. C. Wines.
1837	.....	1841	V.	The Common School Advocate. *Cincinnati.*
1837	Jan'y.	....	.....	The Common School Advocate. *Madison, Ind.* W. Twining.
1837	"	1837	I.	The Common School Advocate. *Jacksonville, Ill.*
1837	"	....	.....	The Universal Educator. *Cincinnati.*
1837	Mar.	1837	I.	The Western Academician. *Cincinnati.* John W. Picket.
1838	Jan'y.	1841	IV.	Youth's Cabinet. *New York and Boston.* N. Southard.
1838	Mar.	1838	I.	Ohio Common School Director. *Columbus, O.* S. Lewis.
1838	"	1840	II.	Journal of Education. *Detroit.* J. D. Pierce.
1838	April.	1838	I.	The Pestalozzian. *Akron, O.* E. L. Sawtell, and H. K. Smith.
1838	"	1839	II.	The Educator. *Easton, Penn.* Faculty of Lafayette College.
1838	July.	1838	I.	Educational Disseminator. *Cincinnati, O.* A. Picket, Sen., and J. W. Picket, M. D.
*1838	Aug.	1865	XX.	Connecticut Common School Journal. *Hartford, Ct.* H. Barnard.
1839	Jan'y.	1852	XIV.	Massachusetts Common School Journal. *Boston.* H. Mann.
1839	"	1842	IV.	Journal of Christian Education. *New York.* Rev. B. O. Peers.
1839	Jan'y.	....	.....	Family and School Visitor. *Bangor and Portland, Me.* Cyril Pearl.
1840	Mar.	1852	XII.	District School Journal of the State of New York. *Geneva and Albany.* F. Dwight.
1841	May.	1841	I.	Illinois Common School Advocate. *Springfield, Ill.* State Education Society.
1842	Jan'y.	1842	I.	Self-Instructor and Journal of the Universal Lyceum. *New York.* J. Holbrook.
1842	April.	1842	I.	Western School Journal. *Covington, Ky.* O. S. Leavitt.
1843	Jan'y.	1843	I.	The University Magazine. *Philadelphia.* University of Pennsylvania.
1843	Oct.	1843	I.	Southern Educational Journal. *Mobile, Ala.* F. H. Brooks.
1844	Jan'y.	1844	I.	Common School Journal. *Philadelphia.* J. S. Hart.
1844	"	1846	III.	The School Herald. *South Boston, Mass.* City Point School.
1844	Feb.	....	.....	Teachers and Pupil's Advocate. *Philadelphia.* E. Rea.
*1845	Sept.	1848	V.	Teacher's Advocate and Jour. of Educ. *New York and Syracuse.* State Teach. Assoc.
1845	Nov.	1849	III.	Journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction. *Providence.* H. Barnard.
1846	Jan'y.	1849	IV.	Practical Educator and Journal of Health. *Boston.* W. M. Cornell.
1846	July.	1846	I.	Essex County Constellation. *Newburyport and Salem.* J. S. Foster.
1846	"	1849	IV.	Ohio School Journal. *Kirtland and Columbus, O.* A. D. Lord.
1846	July.	1846	I.	The Monthly Educator. *Rochester, N. Y.* Parsons E. Day.
1846	Oct.	1851	V.	The School Friend. *Cincinnati, O.* W. B. Smith & Co.
1846	"	1848	III.	The Free School Clarion. *Massillon, O.* W. Bowen.
1846	"	1846	I.	Common School Advocate. *Indianapolis.* H. F. West.
1846	Nov.	1855	XI.	The Student (and Young Tutor.) *New York.* J. S. Denman.
1847	Jan'y.	1848	II.	Connecticut School Manual. *Hartford, Ct.* M. Richardson.
1847	"	1847	I.	Michigan School Journal. *Jackson, Mich.* M. M. Baldwin.
1847	"	....	.....	Educational Magazine and Review. (Prospectus.) *Boston.* J. W. Ingraham.
1847	Feb.	1847	I.	American Journal of Education. *New York.* J. McKeen.
1847	"	1847	I.	Public School Advocate. *Houston, Texas.* Texas Literary Institute.
1847	May.	1849	III.	School Journal and Vermont Agriculturist. *Windsor, Vt.* Bishop and Tracy.
1847	"	1848	II.	Western School Journal. *Cincinnati.* Moore & Co.
1847	July.	1848	II.	Ever Onward. Wright's Paper. *Philadelphia.* A. E. Wright.
1847	Nov.	1849	III.	North-Western Educator. *Chicago.* J. L. Enos.
1847	"	1847	I.	The Radix, or Virginia Public School Advocate. *Richmond, Va.* S. A. Jewett.
1848	Jan'y.	1849	II.	Southern Journal of Education. *Knoxville, Tenn.* S. A. Jewett.
1848	"	1849	II.	Wright's Casket. *Philadelphia.* A. E. Wright.
*1848	"	1865	XVIII	The Massachusetts Teacher. *Boston.* Massachusetts Teachers' Association.
1848	April.	1848	I.	Scholar's Penny Gazette. *Boston.* A. Fitz and J. L. Forrest.
1848	May.	1848	I.	Maine Common School Advocate. *Belfast, Me.* W. G. Crosby.
1849	Jan'y.	1849	I.	Rhode Island Practical Teacher. *Providence.* W. S. Baker.
1849	.....	....	.....	South-Western School Journal. *Knoxville, Tenn.* R. McAnally and T. McIntyre.
1850	Jan'y.	1851	II.	Ohio Teacher (and Western Review.) *Cincinnati and Columbus, O.* T. Rainey.

First Year.	First Month.	Last Ye'r.	Last Vol.	PRINCIPAL TITLE. PLACE OF PUBLICATION. FIRST EDITOR.
1850	Mar.	1850	I.	North-Western Journal of Education. *Madison, Wisc.* O. M. Conover.
1850	July.	1850	I.	Free School Clarion. *Syracuse, N. Y.* W. L. Crandal.
1850	Oct.	1853	IV.	Journal of Education. *Bath, Me.* J. T. Huston.
1850	Nov.	1850	I.	The Teacher's Magazine. *Pittsburg, Penn.* J. J. Buchanan.
1851	Jan'y.	1851	I.	Public School Advocate. *Columbus, O.* A. D. Lord.
1852	"	1852	I.	American Educationist and Western School Journal. *Cleveland, O.* B. K. Maltby.
1852	"	1859	VIII.	Ohio Jour. of Education, (continued as Oh. Educ. Monthly.) *Columbus, O.* A. D. Lord.
1852	"	1853	II.	Rhode Island Educational Magazine. *Providence.* E. R. Potter.
*1852	"	1865	XIII.	Pennsylvania School Journal. *Philadelphia.* T. H. Burroughs.
1852	Feb.	1852	I.	American Educationist and Common School Journal. *Indianapolis.* A. D. Wright.
*1852	Oct.	1865	XIII.	New York Teacher. *Albany.* State Teachers' Association.
1853	Jan'y.	1854	II.	Southern School Journal. *Columbus, Ga.* T. F. Scott.
1853	"	1853	II.	District School (or Iowa) Journal of Education. *Dubuque, Iowa.* R. R. Gilbert.
1853	"	1854	I.	Teacher, and Western Educational Magazine. *St. Louis, Mo.* J. H. Tice.
1853	Nov.	1853	I.	The Self-Instructor. *Charleston, S. C.* R. W. Habersham.
1853	"	....	.....	The Union School. *Bridgeport, Penn.* L. F. Parker.
1853	.....	....	.....	The Guardian. *Columbia, Tenn.* F. G. Smith.
.....	.....	1854	.....	Literary Standard and State Educational Journal. *New Jersey.*
*1854	Jan'y.	1861	VIII.	Michigan Journal of Education. *Detroit.* State Teachers' Association.
1854	"	1854	I.	Western Teachers' Advocate. *Louisville, Ky.* E. Cooper.
1854	"	....	.....	Schuylkill County School Journal. *Pottsville, Penn.* Teachers of Public Schools.
1854	.....	....	.....	The Teacher's Voice. *Vermont.*
1854	.....	....	.....	The Popular Educator. *New York.* A. Montgomery.
1854	.....	....	.....	The Indiana Journal of Education. J. A. Gilkey.
1855	Jan'y.	1855	I.	Journal of Education. *Washington, D. C.* J. D. B. De Bow.
1855	"	1855	I.	The Teachers' Institute. *Brownsville, Penn.* L. F. Parker.
*1855	Feb.	1865	XI.	The Illinois Teacher. *Bloomington, Ill.* State Teachers' Institute.
*1855	Mar.	1865	XI.	The Rhode Island Schoolmaster. *Providence.* State Teachers' Association.
1855	.....	....	.....	The Wisconsin Educational Journal. *Janesville, Wis.* G. S. Dodge.
1855	Aug.	1865	XV.	Barnard's American Journal of Education. *Hartford, Ct.* H. Barnard.
1855	Oct.	1855	I.	The Pupil. *Boston.* A. Fitz.
1855	Nov.	1862	XI.	The Student and Schoolmate. *New York.* N. A. Calkins.
1856	Jan'y.	1857	II.	American Journal of Education and College Review. *New York.* A. Peters.
1856	"	1862	VII.	North-Western Home and School Journal. *Chicago, Ill.* Eberhard and Law.
1856	"	1857	II.	South-Western School Journal. *Louisville, Ky.* J. H. Heywood and N. Butler.
*1856	"	1865	X.	Indiana School Journal. *Indianapolis.* State Teachers' Association.
1856	Feb.	....	.....	Western College Intelligencer. *New York.* Soc'y for Coll. and Theol. Educ. at West.
*1856	Mar.	1865	IX.	Wisconsin Journal of Education. *Racine, Wis.* State Teachers' Association.
1856	Sept.	1856	I.	North Carolina Common School Journal. *Greensboro, N. C.* C. H. Wiley.
1856	Oct.	1864	IX.	Clark's School Visitor. *Philadelphia.* S. Clark.
1857	Jan'y.	1861	VI.	Georgia Educational Journal. *Forsyth, Ga.* Wilkes and Marshall.
1857	"	1857	I.	Alabama Educational Journal. *Montgomery, Ala.* W. F. Perry.
*1857	"	1862	VI.	New Hampshire Journal of Education. *Manchester, N. H.* W. L. Gage.
1857	"	1857	I.	Missouri Journal of Education. *St. Louis.* J. Divoll.
1857	"	1858	III.	The Voice of Iowa. *Cedar Rapids, Iowa.* J. L. Enos.
*1857	"	1857	I.	The School Visitor. *Knoxville, O.* A. Clarke.
1857	Mar.	1863	VII.	Educational Herald (and Musical Monthly.) *New York.* O. S. St. John.
1857	July.	1859	III.	The School Journal. *Philadelphia.* G. N. Townsend.
1857	Sept.	1857	I.	The Normal. *Lebanon, O.* J. Holbrook.
*1858	Jan'y.	1859	II.	North Carolina Journal of Education, *Greensboro, N. C.* J. D. Campbell.
1858	"	1858	I.	Sargent's School Monthly. *Boston.* E. Sargent.
1858	May.	1860	III.	The Missouri Educator. *St. Louis.* T. J. Henderson.
1858	June.	1860	III.	The Maine Teacher. *Portland, Me.* M. H. Dunnell.
1858	Sept.	....	.....	Home and School Journal. *New York.* M. Willson.
*1858	Oct.	1858	I.	Alabama Educational Journal. *Montgomery, Ala.* N. K. Davis.
1858	Nov.	1858	I.	The Teachers' Journal. *Allentown, Penn.* R. W. McAlpine.
*1859	April.	1865	VII.	Vermont School Journal. *Montpelier, Vt.* State Teachers' Association.
1859	May.	....	.....	Literary Advert. and Pub. School Advocate. *Iowa City and Davenport.* S. S. Howe.
1859	"	1860	II.	Educator and Educational Record. *Pittsburg, Penn.* S. Findley.
1859	Aug.	1860	II.	The Southern Teacher. *Montgomery, Ala.* W. S. Barton.
1859	"	1860	II.	Iowa School Journal. *Des Moines, Iowa.* A. J. Stevens.
*1859	Oct.	1865	VI.	Iowa Instructor and School Journal. *Davenport, Iowa.* State Teachers' Association.
1859	Nov.	1859	I.	Educational Monthly. *Louisville, Ky.* E. A. Holyoke.
1859	Aug.	....	.....	Tennessee Journal of Education. *Richmond, Tenn.* C. L. Randolph.
1859	.....	....	.....	The Educator. *Baltimore, Md.* J. N. McJilton.
1860	Jan'y.	1861	II.	The Normal. *Kocomo, Ind.* J. Baldwin.
1860	"	1861	II.	Journal of Progress. *Cincinnati, O.* E. Longley.
*1860	"	1865	VI.	Ohio Educ. Monthly. (Old Series, Vol. XIII., &c.) *Columbus, O.* State Teach. Assoc.
1860	"	1861	II.	The Undergraduate, or University Quarterly. *New Haven.*
1860	"	1860	I.	Educational Repository. *Atlanta, Ga.* J. Knowles.
1860	.....	....	.....	Southern Home Journal. *Montgomery, Ala.* H. H. Smith.
1860	.....	....	.....	The National Educator. *Pittsburg, Penn.* R. Curry.
1860	.....	....	.....	The Aurora. *Memphis, Tenn.*
1861	.....	....	.....	The Missouri Teacher. *St. Louis.*
*1863	July.	1865	III.	The California Teacher. *San Francisco.* State Teachers' Institute.
*1864	April.	1864	I.	School and Family Visitor. *Louisville, Ky.* W. N. Hailman.
1864	Jan'y.	1865	II.	American Educational Monthly. *New York.* Schermerhorn, Bancroft & Co.
*1864	Jan'y.	1865	II.	Kansas Educational Journal. *Leavenworth.* H. D. McCarty.
1864	Aug.	1864	.....	Maryland School Journal. *Hagarstown.* J. P. Harmon & Co.

* Organs of State Associations.





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I. TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPEMENT IN THE DIFFERENT STATES.

Compiled from Official Documents.

CONNECTICUT.

THE first of the class of meetings now known as "Teachers' Institutes," in Connecticut, was held in Hartford, in the autumn of 1839, under the invitation and preliminary arrangements of the Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools. Mr. Barnard was induced to make the experiment at his own expense, in order "to show the practicability of making some provision for the better qualification of common school teachers, by giving the opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge of the studies usually pursued in District Schools, and of the best method of school arrangements, instruction, and government, under the recitations and lectures of experienced and well known teachers and educators."

At the session of the Legislature in May of the same year, Mr. Barnard drew up a Report and Resolution which were adopted by the Joint Standing Committee of the Senate and House on Education, and submitted for the action of the House of Representatives, of which he was a member from Hartford. By this resolution the sum of $5,000 was appropriated to be expended under the direction of the State Board "in promoting and securing the qualification of teachers for the common schools of Connecticut." The report of the committee suggested that in the mode of expenditure, "the co-operation of counties, towns, and individuals should be secured" so as to enlarge the benefits of the appropriation.

As Chairman of the Committee on the part of the House, Mr. Barnard set forth the plan of expenditure which he should recommend to the Board in order to make this small sum act in improving the qualifications of the largest number of teachers, drawn probably from every town, and in the course of three years disseminating through a large majority of all the schools of the state the better views and methods of teaching gained. As the sum was too small to establish an Institution or School exclusively for teachers, and even if it was large enough for that purpose, he should advise that a specific sum from the same should be set apart for each county, in proportion to the number of teachers in each, and that this sum should be expended in the course of three years, substantially as follows:—The Board should invite proposals from institutions and towns in each county, to furnish accommodations for class and gen-

eral exercises, as well as board gratuitously, or at reduced prices, for a limited period in the spring and autumn; and at the same time invite teachers of common schools, and such as proposed to teach, to come together at such time and place in the county as should be designated, for the purpose of mutually considering and solving, under the guidance of those selected to conduct the exercises, the difficulties which each had encountered in the elementary studies, or in the organization, classification, instruction, and discipline of schools, and to receive from experienced teachers and educators, their views on these topics, as extensively as the length of the session should allow. On the other hand, the Board should pledge themselves to secure the services of eminent practical teachers in the several studies of the common schools, and in the science and art of teaching—and also a course of evening lectures, calculated to interest and instruct parents and the public generally, which should be open and free to all. The time for holding each county meeting and the length of the session should be fixed after consulting prominent teachers and school officers, who should be invited to assist in all the preliminary arrangements, and to attend the sessions.

As there were many members of the House who had been teachers or served as school district and society officers, this explanation of a plan so economical, simple, and practical, was perfectly satisfactory, the Report was accepted, and the Resolution appropriating the sum recommended, was adopted without a dissenting voice. In the Senate, from the want of a similar explanation, the subject was not understood, and the Report was referred to the Board of Commissioners to submit to a subsequent Legislature a plan of operation in detail.

What the Legislature refused to do, the Secretary undertook to do himself. A class was formed from such teachers of Hartford county as were disposed to come together on public notice, and placed under the general charge of Mr. Wright, the Principal of the Grammar School. Mr. Wright gave instruction in Grammar and in methods of school keeping. Mr. Post, a teacher in the Grammar School, reviewed the whole subject of Mental and Practical Arithmetic, with full explanations of the difficult points in Fractions, Roots, &c. Professor Davies explained the different points of the higher Mathematics, so far as they were ever taught in district schools, or would help to explain elementary Arithmetic. Rev. Mr. Barton, formerly connected with the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, gave lessons in Reading. Rev. T. H. Gallaudet explained how Composition could be taught even to the younger classes in school, and gave several familiar lectures on school government, and the instruction of very young children by means of the slate. Mr. Brace, Principal of Hartford Female Seminary, explained the first principles of Mathematical and Astronomical Geography, the use of Globes, &c. Mr. Snow, Principal of the Center District School, gave several practical lessons in methods of teaching, with classes in his own school. Mr. Barnard delivered several lectures explanatory of the relations of the teacher to the

school system, to parents and their pupils; also on the laws of health to be practically observed by pupils and teachers in the school-room; and on the best modes of conducting Teachers' Associations, and interesting parents. A portion of each day and evening was also devoted to oral discussions and written essays on subjects connected with teaching, and to visiting the best schools in Hartford. Before separating, the members of the Teachers' Class published a "Card," expressing "their most cordial thanks, for the very excellent course of instruction which they have been permitted to enjoy during a few weeks past. They also beg leave to present their sincere thanks to those gentlemen who have so kindly instructed them, for the very familiar, lucid and interesting manner in which the different subjects have been presented."

On the success of this experiment the Secretary of the Board, in the Connecticut Common School Journal, for November, 1839, says:—

"We have no hesitation in saying that a judicious application of one-fifth of the sum appropriated unanimously by the House of Representatives to promote the education of teachers for common schools, in different sections of the State, would have accomplished more for the usefulness of the coming winter schools and the ultimate prosperity of the school system, than the expenditure of half the avails of the School Fund in the present way. One thousand at least of the eighteen hundred teachers, would have enjoyed an opportunity of critically revising the studies which they will be called upon to teach, with a full explanation of all the principles involved, and with reference to the connection which one branch of knowledge bears to another, and also to the best methods of communicating each, and the adaptation of different methods to different minds. They would have become familiar with the views and methods of experienced teachers, as they are carried out in better conducted schools than those with which they had been familiar. They would have entered upon their schools with a rich fund of practical knowledge, gathered from observation, conversation and lectures; and with many of their own defective, erroneous, and perhaps mischievous views, corrected and improved. Who can tell how many minds will be perverted, how many tempers ruined, how much injury done to the heart, the morals and the manners of children, in consequence of the injudicious methods of inexperienced and incompetent teachers, the coming winter? The heart, the manners, the morals, the minds of the children are, or should be, in the eye of the State, too precious materials for a teacher to experiment upon, with a view to qualify himself for his profession; and yet the teacher is compelled to do so under the present order of things. He has no opportunity afforded him, as every mechanic has, to learn his trade; and if he had, there is but little inducement held out for him to do this. No man is so insane as to employ a workman to construct any valuable or delicate piece of mechanism, who is to learn how to do it for the first time on that very article. No one employs any other than an experienced artist to repair a watch. No parent intrusts the management of a lawsuit, involving his property or his reputation, to an attorney who has not studied his profession and given evidence of his ability. No one sends for a physician to administer to his health, who has not studied the human constitution and the nature and uses of medicine. No one sends a shoe to be mended, or a horse to be shod, or a plough to be repaired, except to an experienced workman; and yet parents will employ teachers, who are to educate their children for two worlds—who are to mold and fashion and develop that most delicate, complicated, and wonderful piece of mechanism, the human being, the most delicate and wonderful of all God's creations—to fit them for usefulness in life, to become upright and intelligent witnesses, jurors, electors, legislators and rulers, safe in their power to resist the manifold temptations to vice and crime which will beset their future path, and strong and happy in the "godlike union of right feelings with correct principles."

A similar class of female teachers was assembled, on the invitation and at the expense of Mr. Barnard, in the spring of 1840, at Hartford, under the charge of Mr. Brace, Principal of the Hartford Female Seminary, with the same satisfactory results. On the strength of these experiments, Mr. Barnard commended the subject anew to the attention and liberality of the Legislature—but without securing any immediate action. In the meantime, (within the next three years,) in numerous addresses delivered before Educational Conventions, and in personal interviews with the prominent teachers and active friends of school improvement in over fifteen States, this mode of solving the problem of "how to reach the large number of young men and young women who will rush into this sacred work without that special preparation which its delicacy, difficulties, and far reaching issues demand," was always presented and in most instances largely developed. Without ceasing "to urge the establishment of regular Normal or Professional schools for Teachers, Professorships and Lectures on the History of Education and the Art of Teaching in all Colleges, a Teachers' Department in all High Schools and Academies and Female Seminaries, Libraries of books on Education and Teaching, Educational Journals, Conventions and Associations of teachers and active friends of schools whether actively engaged in teaching or not, and addresses to parents and teachers in every neighborhood, in every lecture-hall, in every church, in every Legislative Assembly," he also pointed out the immediate, extensive, and practical results of gathering the young and less experienced teachers of a county, (as the most convenient territorial division of a state,) for a brief but systematic review of the whole subject, and especially for the consideration of difficulties already met with in studies and school organization and management,—under eminent instructors. These gatherings were shown to be highly useful in reference to the local improvement of schools, where they should be held.*

In the autumn of 1845, Mr. James M. Bunce, a liberal merchant of Hartford, addressed a letter to Mr. Barnard, then engaged in the work of establishing a system of public schools in Rhode Island, inviting him to return to Connecticut to resume his labors in the educational field, under the pledge of pecuniary and personal co-operation from himself and others; and in case he should not conclude to do so, "to tell us what to do and how to do it, to revive the interest which had begun to manifest itself all over the state and which the disastrous legislation of 1842, under the blind guidance of ———, has almost extinguished. I should like to do something practical for Hartford, and for Connecticut, and I should like to do it under your direction, and if possible with your personal coöperation. Come out of the wilderness—I mean no disrespect to our brave little neighbor—and help your own birthplace and state, at least by your advice."

* In an address delivered at Chicago, Milwaukee, Madison, Detroit, Ann Arbor, Sandusky, Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati in the fall of 1846, this view of Teachers' Institutes was very fully presented, as the great agency for local as well as professional improvement.

To this letter, Mr. Barnard replied:—

I cannot leave my present field—my hand is on the plough, which is deep in an almost unbroken prairie turf, but I expect to see what you call a "wilderness," blossom as the rose. I shall here work out my plan of school improvement by educating the public mind up to the appreciation of the necessary conditions of a successful system of public schools, cheap enough for the poorest, and good enough for the best citizen, and at the same time train the agents in the administration of such a system—teachers, officers and parents. It will take time and work—but I have schooled myself "to labor and to wait." The work to be done here is substantially the work which has to be done in Connecticut and every other state—*the public mind must be enlightened as to all the details of the system*, the indispensable features of a school law, the requisites of a good school house, the necessity of regular and punctual attendance, the proper distribution of studies and children into schools of different grades, and the classification of every school of any grade, and above all as to the qualities and qualifications of good teachers, and how to select, train and improve them, and especially how to make the most out of such young men and young women as will, until public opinion is made right as to the requirements, rush into the business without the requisite knowledge, and especially without any training, or apprenticeship in organizing a school, and communicating instruction, and governing and stimulating children by the highest motives. Now in reply to your inquiry—out of all this field of work, what you should select to do first, and at once, for Hartford, and Connecticut. I should advise, for Hartford, the establishment of a Public High School with, or without the consolidation of all the city districts into one, and all the schools subjected to a Board of Education acting through a Superintendent. The great work for the State is the enlightenment of the entire population, who are ignorant as to the conditions of a good school, full of conceit as to the superiority of their own schools, which were once in advance of those of other states, but which no longer meet the requirements of the age, and in consequence, are no longer attended by the children of those parents who are themselves well educated, or who know what a good education is. But the system itself.—its legal organization, is radically defective in reference to the changed condition of society, and especially in respect to the mode of supporting schools, and the employment, training, inspection and payment of teachers. My advice is to bring up these subjects, including the right and duty of taxation for school purposes, subordinate to the methods and the demonstration of the proper qualifications of teachers, in a series of evening meetings, held as part of a Teachers' Institute, substantially like those established in Hartford in 1839. The leading features should be the same, but I would advise sessions of not more than a week,—no longer than you can keep up the enthusiastic interest and attention of the members, who should be distributed through the families. This is an essential feature of my ideal of a Teachers' Institute, held in reference not only to the professional training of its members and their knowledge of society, but to the developement of parental interest and appreciation of their work, as well as to local school improvement. I never have seen a gathering of parents of any class, who could not be interested in the subject of schools and education, if discussed in a practical way, and especially in reference to their own children and schools. If I am correct in this observation, you had better discuss the establishment of a City High School, when the public mind is interested and the parental heart is warmed by the protracted discussions and addresses of a rousing Teachers' Institute. You will thus benefit directly a large number of teachers, who will directly benefit as many school districts, and the improvement thus begun, will be perpetuated by attendance on other Institutes in all the cities and large villages of the state; —and in any place where your meetings are held, (provided they are wisely managed,) great local improvements in reference to school-houses, attendance, gradation, classification, books, apparatus, instruction, discipline, parental coöperation, supervision, &c., will be begun, advanced, or perfected. Begin, therefore, with arresting the attention of the Legislature and the people by the voice and the press—get at, and get together as often and as many teachers as you can, especially the young—get parents in to listen to the discussions of education-

al questions, and the exhibition of good methods, and the exposure of bad methods both of instruction and discipline—and in due time—longer or shorter, just in proportion to the number of meetings of the right kind you hold in the places which need the quickening influence of discussion and light, a revolution will be achieved in the school habits, and the school law of Connecticut.

This letter was followed, soon after, by a personal interview with Mr. Bunce, and in that interview originated, or at least the determination was reached, to offer a "Premium for a Practical Essay on the necessity and mode of improving the Public Schools of Connecticut, and of adding to the schools in cities, a department of instruction in the higher branches of Education;" to hold as early as practicable a Teachers' Institute for Hartford County; to establish a High School in Hartford; and employ Rev. Mr. Richardson as Agent. The premium was offered in the spring of 1846, and the award was made by Rev. G. Burgess, and Dr. Gallaudet, out of the essays offered, to that prepared by Rev. N. Porter, afterwards Professor of Moral Philosophy and Didactic Theology in Yale College. The Essay was printed and widely circulated by Mr. Bunce*, and communicated to the Legislature in the Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools. The preparation of this Essay was undertaken by its author on the urgent solicitation of Mr. Barnard, and after a full consultation with him on the conditions and measures for improving the common schools of the state. Among the measures urged, together with a thorough system of state and county inspection, a regular Normal School and a reorganization of the public schools of cities, was this of "Teachers' Institutes.'

Teacher's Institutes may be held throughout the State, and that also, without delay. These are conventions for mutual improvement and excitement. They may be also called traveling Teachers' seminaries.—These have been held in other states with the most striking results. The idea was indeed conceived in Connecticut, years ago, and was tried on a small scale for two years in succession. At a place and time previously agreed upon, the teachers within a given district are invited to be present, to spend a week or more in convention. The time is employed in discussing the best methods of teaching reading, writing, &c., and the various points connected with school discipline. What is more to the point, lessons are given in these various branches, and those whose business it is to teach, receive instruction from eminent and experienced instructors. We noticed in a recent account of one of these Institutes, that a distinguished elocutionist and teacher of reading was present, and gave a course of lessons. We doubt not that every teacher who read with him, or who heard others read, for several days, will read the better all his life, and that the reading in the scores of schools there represented, has received an impulse for the better for the few days spent at that Institute. The same benefit might be looked for from the presence of teachers in simple drawing, writing, and arithmetic. At these meetings, experienced teachers give the results of their various methods, of their many mistakes, and the ways in which they were corrected. Here raw and timid teachers are initiated into their new business; older teachers receive valuable suggestions, which their experience and their sense of want, enable them at once to understand and to apply; self-conceited teachers are forced to let go some of their old notions, and to grow wiser as they compare themselves

* The establishment of the Public High School in Hartford was effected mainly through the liberality of Mr. Bunce, who paid for the printing of 5,000 copies of Mr. Barnard's "Considerations on a Public High School in Hartford," and met other expenses connected with the vigorous agitation of the subject.

with those who know more than themselves. An enthusiasm in their business is excited. They are impressed with right views of the dignity and solemnity of their employment. They form new and strong attachments, and from these interesting and exciting scenes, they go fresh and cheerful to the labors of the season, furnished with valuable knowledge. These Institutes differ from ordinary conventions, in that they furnish definite business, and are spent in gaining real knowledge. They are not wasted in idle harangues and fine speeches. They continue long enough to lay out much real work, and to accomplish it. They furnish a model for Town Associations, and the teachers who have felt the advantages of these larger meetings, continue their influence, by repeating the same thing on a smaller scale. So important have they been found to be by trial, that in the year 1845, a friend of education in Massachusetts gave one thousand dollars to defray the expenses of a series of these meetings, and the legislature of that state, during its session now just expiring, appropriated two thousand five hundred dollars for the current year, to enable the teachers of the state to avail themselves of these advantages.

Let these Institutes be held in Connecticut with no delay. Let them be made interesting by providing able assistants, and by the coöperation of the friends of education, each in their own district. Let some provision be made by the liberal, that the expense attending them shall not be too burdensome. This experiment can be made without any legislative countenance. It needs only a willing heart and a ready hand. Let it be made thoroughly in all parts of the state, and let it be seconded, as it can be, and as it *must* be, in order to be successful, and it will do much to kindle zeal and to create hope for our common schools. It is simple, voluntary, practicable, and cheap. Let it be tried, and it will not be many years before the inquiry will be raised, whether an education for their business is not required for common school teachers, and whether schools for this specific purpose are not demanded

The suggestions of the Prize Essay were seconded by the Superintendent in his Report for 1846,* who recommended, next to the establishment of one or more Normal Schools, "the holding of Teachers' Institutes or Conventions for one or two weeks in the spring, or autumn, where young and inexperienced teachers may have an opportunity to review their studies and receive practical instruction from older and expeperienced teachers." No legislative action followed this year. It needed the rousing effect of a large and enthusiastic Institute—and this was secured by one held in Hartford in October, which numbered over 250 teachers, and in the exercises of which Mr. Gallaudet, W. A. Alcott, J. Olney, J. E. Lovell, N. L. Gallup, D. N. Camp, Rev. M. Richardson, Dr. Hawes, Dr. Bushnell, and other teachers took part. This Institute was followed by others in other counties, in the spring of 1847, and in his Report for 1847, the Superintendent renewed his recommendation, "now that we are not without experience of the benefits of these gatherings of teachers for mutual improvement," and the Legislature in May authorized and directed him, to "employ suitable persons to hold at least two Schools for Teachers in each county, between the 15th of September and 31st of October, for the purpose of instruction in the best modes of governing and teaching our Common Schools." Under this provision, sixteen In-

* The compiler of this article has the best authority for stating that the First, Second, Third and Fourth Reports of the Superintendent of Common Schools of Connecticut, from 1845 to 1849, and all the circulars relating to the School Returns and Schools for Teachers, were prepared by Mr. Barnard during his connection with the schools of Rhode Island.

stitutes were held in the autumn of 1847, and the Superintendent thus speaks of their influence, in his Report for 1848.

In view of the acknowledged success of these Institutes or temporary Schools for Teachers, in this and other States, the Superintendent would respectfully urge upon the Legislature the wisdom of making provision for their continued support and systematic management. He is satisfied that in no other way can so much be done for the immediate improvement of the common schools, and in a manner so acceptable to the people. However wise and useful ultimately, may be the engrafting of a regularly constituted Normal School upon our school system, in the opinion of the undersigned, the holding of these Institutes in the several Counties, in the spring and autumn, and in different towns, until every town shall thus have had the benefit of prolonged education meetings, will accomplish a much larger amount of good in a shorter period of time.

The Institutes or Schools for Teachers, should be regarded as a part of our system of common school instruction, and, as such, should be appointed, organized, supported and supervised by those who are connected with the administration of the system, and feel themselves responsible to the State.

The course of instruction during each daily session, for the present, at least, should be confined mainly to drills in the studies ordinarily taught in our district-schools, with special reference to the best methods of communicating and illustrating the same, with such facilities as most district-school teachers can command. In the schools appointed in the spring, the exercises should have special reference to the summer schools and to female teachers; and in the autumn, to winter schools and both male and female teachers.

The oral and written discussions of topics connected with the organization, classification, studies, instruction and discipline of schools in reference to the actual experience of the members, and the nature, object and instrumentalities of education, will form an important part of the evening exercises of the Institute. A few hours thus spent will frequently introduce the young and inexperienced teacher into the results of years of experience on the part of the older members.

Public lectures on the duties of parents and the community generally to the common schools—on the construction and internal arrangement of school houses—on the administration and management of common schools—on the reciprocal duties of parents, teachers and pupils—on the claims and rights of teachers, and on improvements in education, are among the legitimate and indispensable objects to be provided for in the establishment of an Institute.

The success of an institute will depend very much on the qualifications of the person appointed to organize and superintend its operations. He should possess character, reputation and manners, as well as professional skill, in order to command the respect of all. He should have the faculty to win the affections and secure the confidence of the members; a power to awaken their liveliest interest, and rivet their attention in every branch of study or exercise which may be brought up for consideration; and to do this from day to day, to the close of the session. To accomplish these things, he must have variety of talent and of expedients, a deep interest in the object and results of the Institute, and a heart full of generous enthusiasm in the cause of popular education.

In pursuance of these suggestions, the Legislature in 1848 made permanent provision for this class of educational meetings in such number and at such times and places each year as the Superintendent should appoint. From 1839 to 1864, inclusive, 150 Institutes have been held, with an annual attendance of about one-third of the teachers employed in the winter schools. Their success secured the establishment of a State Normal School in 1849.

NEW YORK.

The State Superintendent (Hon. Samuel Young) of Common Schools, in his Annual Report to the Legislature, in January, 1844, thus introduces the subject of Teachers' Institutes:—

Since the appointment of County Superintendents, and under their influence, new and voluntary associations called "Teachers' Institutes" have been organized in several of the counties, from which great improvement has resulted. The first of these institutions was established two years ago under the auspices of the Superintendent (J. S. Denman) of Tompkins county. A teacher of thirty years' experience (Salem Town, A. M.*) has attended the sessions of several of these voluntary associations, and communicated to them not only the lights of his long practical knowledge, but also the benefits of his ample scientific attainments. In a communication from him to this Department, which is herewith transmitted, the course of discipline and instruction pursued in these Institutes is clearly explained. It will be seen that Mr. Town, at the three sessions which he has attended, has aided in imparting instruction to four hundred and thirty-six teachers, of whom two hundred and sixty-six were females and one hundred and seventy males. By thus associating together for two or three weeks in the year, the teachers of a county may communicate to each other every improvement within the knowledge of any one of them; and by listening to lectures, and submitting themselves to the regular discipline of a school, may augment their scientific knowledge, and make great acquisitions in the theory and practice of teaching.

Poorly as teachers are usually paid, they deserve great credit for the sacrifices of both time and money, to which they thus voluntarily submit in attending these associations. And strongly impressed with the utility of such associations in the advancement of educational knowledge, I earnestly recommend to the Legislature the passage of a law by which the sum heretofore appropriated to sustain teachers' departments in academies—a system which has to a great extent been a failure—shall be applied in equal portions among the Teachers' Institutes, which may be organized and maintained for at least two weeks in each year, in the several counties in this State.

The following extract from the Report of the Tompkins County Superintendent (J. S. Denman, Esq.) of Common Schools, to the State Superintendent, in the autumn of 1843, gives the earliest notice of the first of this class of meetings which was held in the State of New York, where they have since proved the most efficient and popular instrumentality in the improvement of common schools. Mr. Denman had, in October, 1842, called the attention of the "Tompkins County Teachers' Association" to the importance of establishing an Institute for the teachers of the county.

The first Teachers' Institute in the State, and probably in the world, was opened at this place on the fourth day of April, 1843, under the management of the County Superintendent, who had employed as instructors the Hon. Salem Town, Rev. David Powell, and Prof. James B. Thomson, men of profound erudition and eminent ability. Twenty-eight teachers were in attendance, and received instruction daily for a term of two weeks, in the best modes of governing

* In the spring of 1841, and again in the summer of 1842, Mr. Barnard met Mr. Town, and other teachers and schoolmen in the western part of New York, and in those interviews discussed the various modes of improving the qualifications of young and inexperienced teachers, and particularly the plan of permanent Departments in certain Academies as in New York, and that of itinerating Normal Classes as had been proposed and tried in Connecticut.

and teaching the various common branches, (which necessarily included a critical review of those branches,) and were instructed in the analysis of the English language, vocal music, and other branches not heretofore usually taught in common schools. At the close of the term, they left the Institute highly pleased and much benefited; and I am happy to say, having subsequently visited schools taught by several of the members of the Institute, that the most approved methods of teaching adopted and recommended at the Institute, have been very successfully introduced in most of the schools taught by those who were members; and having previously visited schools taught by teachers who attended the Institute, and whose schools I have subsequently visited, it gives me great pleasure to be able to state, that their schools during the past summer have been conducted from fifty to one hundred per cent. better than formerly.

Prior to the holding of the Institute described in the foregoing extracts, Mr. Stephen R. Sweet had succeeded in establishing at Kingsboro, in Fulton county, New York, a "temporary Normal School," which was opened on the 6th of September, 1842, and continued in session eight weeks, at a charge of $3 for the term, or fifty cents per week. The circular put forth by Mr. Sweet states, among other things, that

The school is designed to afford gentlemen and ladies an opportunity to qualify themselves for teaching, and offers peculiar inducements to those who intend to teach common schools during the ensuing winter.

The mutual system of instruction will be adopted as far as possible, and frequent discussions will be held on the best mode of teaching and governing schools.

Teachers who wish to become acquainted with improved methods of instruction, will be greatly benefited by spending what time they can at this Institution, though it should be but a few weeks.

An account of this school, while in progress, was communicated to the State Superintendent by Mr. Sprague, the Deputy Superintendent, and published in the appendix to his Annual Report, December, 1842. The following is an extract:—

Forty students entered their names as scholars, and the number has since increased to between sixty and seventy, with a prospect of some more before the close of the school. There are 23 females, most of whom, with the male students, are intending to qualify for teaching. The majority have had some experience in teaching, and several have made it a profession for several years past. This I consider an interesting and important fact, because it shows that temporary Normal Schools will call together actual teachers, and those, too, who would teach if no special efforts were made for their improvement.

The school opens at 9 o'clock A. M., by reading the Scriptures and prayer. A general exercise follows on arithmetic, consisting of lectures and demonstrations from the blackboard, by the principal and students in turn. Lectures have been given by the students on notation, numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, the denominate numbers, reduction, and fractions; and a course of lectures has been given by the principal on ratio and proportion, with a practical application to the rule of three direct, inverse and compound rule of three. In addition to this exercise in arithmetic, the whole school is divided into four classes: each class spending one half hour per day in the solution of problems on a blackboard and in reading, the teacher telling how to solve them, and the reason of their operation.

Particular attention is given to the principles of arithmetic and its practical application to the business of life. There are two classes in algebra and two in natural philosophy. Algebra has had a tendency to withdraw the attention of the students from the elementary branches; consequently, less attention will be given to this branch during the remainder of the term.

The whole school is exercised daily in linear drawing, including most of the figures in geometry.

Considerable attention has been given to penmanship, but not as much as its importance demands. An accomplished writing master, Horace E. Smith, Esq., of this county, has been engaged to teach this art, which will claim special attention during the term.

The students are required to recite regular lessons in geography, taking their regular turn in hearing the recitations. Then follows a general exercise of the whole school, called classifying, or in other words, repeating in concert and repeating twice, the names of the different States and Kingdoms of the world, with their capitals, the oceans, seas, gulfs, bays, principal lakes, rivers, &c. The exercise is very interesting and profitable, as students will gain a knowledge of the names and situations of places much sooner in this way than any other with which I am acquainted. This exercise is followed by a lecture on the globe.

In English grammar, the females constitute one class, the males another, and about three-quarters of an hour every day has been occupied by each class in parsing, correcting false syntax, &c. Then follows a general exercise of the whole school, consisting of lectures by the students alternately, parsing difficult sentences, correcting grammatical errors which occur in daily conversation, with discussions on disputed points in grammar. One composition a week is required of every student, which is corrected by the principal in the presence of the writer.

The whole school exercise daily upon the sounds of the letters and the principles of orthography. Great attention is given to elocution and reading. In addition to a daily exercise in concert by the whole school in recitation, including the elementary sounds of the English language, difficult specimens in articulations, and the best and most difficult pieces in our language, five students declaim every day, so that each young gentleman has an opportunity to declaim several times during the term. The exercises are intended to cultivate and improve the voice, train the organs of speech, improve the articulation, pronunciation, and taste of the pupil. The classes are required to define the most important words in their lessons, and much care is taken to have them understand the meaning of what they read, and to convey the meaning in the most agreeable manner to others. Attention is given to the grammatical and rhetorical pauses, emphasis, quantity, and quality of voice, and every thing necessary to enable the pupil to read with beauty, force, and variety. I have never known greater improvement made in the above particulars in so short a time, than has been made at this school. The principal is very particular to have the students convey their ideas correctly and in a distinct manner. Interesting discussions are held upon the best modes of teaching the several branches, &c. The school has attracted much attention, and I am satisfied that if nothing happens to mar our prospects, the result will answer the expectations of Mr. Sweet, myself, the students, and the public generally, and will prove an efficient aid in bringing about a reform in the common schools of our country; and if the same plan can be carried out in other counties, a complete and thorough reform will be manifest throughout the State.

At the close of the school a Teachers' Association for the county was formed, and the following resolution was adopted:—

Resolved, That a system of temporary Normal Schools would be an efficient aid in producing the so much desired reform in our common school system, and the late Kingsboro Normal School, under the charge of Mr. S. R. Sweet, has been productive of results that will tell favorably upon the county of Fulton and education generally.

In his introductory address, Mr. Sweet exclaimed "that the county bearing the name of *Fulton* shall be the favored spot to put into operation a nobler and more powerful engine than that of steam, to elevate the character of our common schools."

In his annual report for 1845, the State Superintendent introduces the subject as follows:—

In no less than seventeen of the largest counties, Teachers' Institutes have been established during the past two years, in which upwards of one thousand teachers have been instructed during periods varying from two to six or eight weeks, immediately preceding the commencement of their respective terms of instruction, by the most competent and experienced educators whose services could be procured, in conjunction with the County Superintendent. These associations are wholly voluntary, and the expenses, including board, tuition, and the use of convenient rooms, apparatus, &c., have hitherto been defrayed exclusively by the teachers. The course of instruction consists generally of a critical and thorough review of all the elementary branches required to be taught in the common schools, full expositions and illustrations of the most approved methods of communicating knowledge to the young, and of the proper government and discipline of schools, and a mutual interchange of views and opinions among the teachers, instructors, and Superintendent. Among the numerous improvements which the experience of past imperfections has introduced into the practical operation of our common schools, there is none which combines so much utility and value as these local and temporary institutions; and in the judgment of the Superintendent they are highly deserving of legislative aid.

In the next Legislature a bill was introduced "appropriating $100 to each county in which an Institute shall be established," but was not passed into an act. After an experience of their utility for five years, during which period they have been held in every county in the State, and in many counties, every year, and some years twice a year, for that period of time, and after repeated recommendations of their claims by the State Superintendent to the aid of the State, the Legislature, in November, 1847, passed an act in their behalf. By this act a sum not exceeding sixty dollars annually to any one county, is appropriated for the use and benefit of Teacher's Institutes in the several counties, whenever said Institutes shall have numbered fifty members in all counties with upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants, and of thirty members in counties with less than thirty thousand inhabitants, and shall have continued in session at least ten working days—each Institute to be under the management of a committee consisting of three Town Superintendents, appointed by the clerk of the county in which it is held.

In the fall of 1847, Mr. Page, Principal of the State Normal School, visited and addressed eleven Institutes, in as many counties, attended by over 1,000 teachers, and on his return to Albany addressed a letter to the District-School Journal, in which he observes:—

In conclusion, I may say I have on the whole seen nothing to diminish but much to strengthen my convictions of the utility of Teachers' Institutes, provided they are ably conducted and confined to their legitimate objects. They are exposed to dangers and abuses, but only to such as may with prudence be averted. Perhaps one of the most threatening dangers is, the belief recently expressed by a few men of but limited practical knowledge in educational affairs, that these Institutes, with their sessions of *ten days* in a year, may become the substitutes for schools for more thorough training; and that boys and girls may escape the drudgery of study in the academies and higher schools, in the patient acquirement of *what to teach;* and by rushing through a ten days' session in an Institute, may come forth perfectly qualified to act as teachers of the young. This notion, visionary as it manifestly is, is destined to be pressed upon public attention, and the true friends of education are to decide how far such a vagary shall find currency in the community.

The true object of a Teachers' Institute is to refresh the memories of those

who are about to engage in teaching, as to the things they *have before learned*, by means of hasty reviews of the branches to be taught; to impart to them, in as brief a time as possible, such practical hints, with reference to teaching, as experience may suggest; to breathe into them, as far as may be, the spirit of their calling; to enkindle in them aspirations of a true professional feeling; and to enlighten them, as far as it can be done in a limited time, upon the best methods of school government and school arrangement. With this object in view, and with judicious care in conducting the exercises in them, I most sincerely believe Teachers' Institutes will be one of the valuable instrumentalities in elevating the profession of a teacher; and I rejoice that the Legislature has granted an appropriation to alleviate the burdens of the teachers in sustaining them.

By the Act of 1862, on the creation of the office of District Commissioner of Common Schools, with the powers and duties formerly exercised by County Superintendents, these Commissioners were authorized to act in the matter of Institutes in place of the Town Superintendents, and by the Act of 1865 are clothed, in subordination to the authority of the State Superintendent, with the largest powers yet conferred for the proper management of this class of educational meetings in any State. The act was prepared in pursuance of the following suggestions of Mr. Rice in his Annual Report as Superintendent for 1864:—

No other provision for the instruction of common school teachers has been more successful than these modern organizations; and it is gratifying to be able to report, that the importance of their agency in the successful operation of our school system within the past few years is universally acknowledged and appreciated. They are now held annually, in nearly every county, for a period of ten days or more, and are composed of persons who are teaching or preparing to teach in the common schools in their respective counties. These Institutes are devoted to practical instruction in the most approved methods of imparting knowledge to the young, and of disciplining and awakening their faculties. This method of providing the common schools with teachers, whatever its imperfections, has the advantage, that it affords instruction to persons who give earnest of their interest in the vocation, and who immediately carry back into the schools whatever increase of information and ability they may have derived from the Institute.

The aggregate number of teachers thus instructed during the last nine years is, according to the best information in this Department, more than 45,000, at an average expense of about ninety-one cents for each. [In 1862, in 52 counties 62 Institutes were held, with an attendance of 9,444, at an expense of $8,665, or 152 teachers to each Institute, and an expense to the State for each teacher of 92 cents.] The number of these Institutes visited by either myself or deputy, and by both, was over forty, during the limited time in the autumn within which they were generally held; and we cordially unite in bearing testimony to the practical utility of the instruction imparted and received in them, to the intelligence and moral worth of their members, and to the untiring and zealous efforts of the School Commissioners in establishing and conducting them to success. These officers report that teachers manifest commendable zeal and tact in incorporating into their modes of discipline, classification, and instruction, the suggestions and illustrations received at the Institutes, and that the influence upon the schools is marked and salutary.

While commending these temporary Normal Schools, the undersigned is not unmindful of the fact that they can be and need to be greatly improved in their management and in the instruction given, by supplying them with the most able and accomplished instructors whose services can be secured. There are a few competent gentlemen, a part of whose business is to conduct them, but the number is not nearly equal to the demand, inasmuch as the Institutes are, very generally, in session during the short period in the fall between the summer and winter terms of school. The opinion is entertained that the Superintendent

of Public Instruction should be authorized to so distribute the time of holding the Institutes in the several counties that a few teachers, continuously employed, may, by going from county to county, instruct them all; and it is recommended that he be empowered to employ a corps of the most able and accomplished educators for that purpose.

In the Revised School Code, adopted in 1865, under the title of Teachers' Institutes, there are the following provisions:—It is made the duty of every School Commissioner (111, excluding City Superintendents) to organize in his own district, or in concert with one or more in the same county, a Teachers' Institute, and to induce, if possible, all the teachers in his district to attend, and to make report of the same to the Superintendent. The State Superintendent shall advise and coöperate in fixing time and place and length of each Institute; and in employing suitable persons to conduct the same; and he may establish regulations for issuing certificates by Commissioners to teachers in attendance, which shall protect such teachers from any forfeiture of their wages during such attendance. The State Treasurer is directed to pay such sums of money as the Superintendent shall certify to be due to any Commissioners for expenses in holding, and to any persons employed to conduct and teach Institutes.

OHIO.

The first Teachers' Institute in Ohio was held in Sandusky from the 2d to the 12th of September, 1845, under a call of the Erie County Association for the Improvement of Common Schools, but on the suggestion and mainly at the expense of Hon. Ebenezer Lane. Judge Lane was moved to this, by a lecture of Henry Barnard at Columbus, in Dec., 1842, before the Western College of Teachers, and by a subsequent personal interview, in which, in answer to an inquiry what steps to take to introduce Teachers' Institutes into Ohio and move the citizens of Sandusky to establish a system of graded schools,* replied:—"Hold a rousing Teachers' Institute—scatter the teachers through the families of your city—invite parents to attend the exercises of the day session, and have interesting lectures and discussions in the evenings, and their heads and hearts will be prepared to receive and adopt any practicable scheme of school improvement, in which their children are to share." The Institute was held, and was eminently successful, under the instructions of Salem Town, of New York, A. D. Lord, and M. F. Cowdrey—the two last, then of Kirtland, Ohio. Both of these teachers had, from that time on, constant applications to hold similar Institutes in other counties in Ohio. With them were associated in different Institutes J. W. Harvey, M. D. Leggett, J. Hurtz, Lorin Andrews, W. Colby, Z. C. Graves, &c.

The Secretary of State, Hon. Samuel Galloway, in his Report on the Common Schools of the State, dated Jan. 14, 1847, commends the establishment of Institues to the attention of the Legislature and the people.

There is no plan so well calculated to produce a reform in the character of teachers, as those recent but rapidly extending associations designated as "Teachers' Institutes." The prominent object of this institution is, to prepare teachers for a full and successful discharge of their duties. At these meetings, which are usually held semi-annually, and for a period of two or three weeks, the teachers form themselves into a school, and prescribe regulations, recitations, and exercises similar to those which exist in well conducted schools; each teacher in turn becomes a learner or preceptor, and this alternate position depends upon his inferiority or superiority in a particular department of study. All have an opportunity of exhibiting the extent and variety of their attainments; and their respective acquirements become common capital, from which they may equally draw. Although for their mutual edification and advancement topics of science and literature beyond the ordinary reach of the highest studies in common or private schools may be examined, yet special attention is given to those branches which command attention in their respective spheres of labor. These are critically reviewed and analyzed, and all that had been doubtful, difficult, and unexplained to any, is subjected to the concentrated light of all. Modes of instruction and discipline, with their errors and advantages, and varied application to temperament, age, sex, condition, and mental and moral peculiarities, and all other matters relating to the profession of teaching, are submitted to full consultation, advice, and discussion. Another object contemplated by these "Institutes," is to enlighten and concentrate public sen-

* The twofold object of Judge Lane was accomplished—Teachers' Institutes were inaugurated in Ohio, and the public schools of Sandusky were reorganized, soon after, with M. F. Cowdrey at their head.

timent. To secure this our public evening sessions are held, at which the nature and importance of education, and the duties, obligations, and responsibilities of all classes are, by discussion and lectures, prominently presented and pressed upon public attention.

The first of these schools (as they may appropriately be termed) for teachers, was instituted by Henry Barnard, Esq., of Connecticut, in 1839. The same plan of action which he devised was adopted in New York, and to an association organized in that State in 1843 was first given the name of "Teachers' Institute." There are now many organizations of this description in the State, at which, semi-annually, from one to two hundred male and female teachers attend. They now exist in four of the New England States, New York, Michigan, Illinois, and Ohio.

The first "Institute" in Ohio was established in Sandusky City, under the auspices of Hon. Ebenezer Lane, and other citizens of that place, and by the superintendence of Salem Town, Esq., of N. Y., a gentleman of enlarged experience in matters of education.

[Here follows a table, showing the places where ten other Institutes were held during the same year.]

From this table it will be seen that an aggregate of nearly one thousand have been instructed in these schools. Those who have corresponded with this Department speak in the highest terms of the result of the experiment. The following extract from the catalogues of two Institutes indicates the design of their patrons —.

"Whereas, we believe that the want of unanimity in opinion among teachers, and of uniformity in the method of communicating instruction in schools, is one of the greatest defects in the present Common School System in Ohio; and whereas, we believe the practice of assembling teachers, from time to time, for the purpose of practical instruction on all subjects connected with teaching and governing schools, and giving opportunity for the free interchange of opinion among themselves, and the communication of the results of their own experience, would be one of the most efficient means for giving an impulse to the cause of education; therefore

"*Resolved*, That we hail the introduction of TEACHERS' INSTITUTES into this State as the dawn of a new era in the cause of common school education, and that we cordially recommend the organization of such *Institutes* in every county in the State.

"*Resolved*, That ws recommend to the teachers of education to memorialize the Legislature of the State in favor of endowing *Teachers' Institutes*, and making them a part of the *School System* of Ohio."—*Sandusky City Institute.*

"*Resolved*, That we hail with unfeigned satisfaction the organization of the 'Teachers Institute' in Ohio; that the success of this Institute has more than realized our most sanguine expectations; and that we believe that such schools for teachers are eminently calculated to elevate the standard of common school education."—*Geauga County Institute.*

Were this same instrumentality extensively adopted in Ohio, it would breathe the spirit of a new creation upon our common school system. These associations must tend to produce a professional spirit and independence; an enlarged view of the dignity and responsibility of the teacher's vocation; unity of purpose and harmony of action; ambition to attain the highest standard which may be exhibited by any teacher; imitation of the best modes of instruction and discipline; and active coöperation in all that is calculated to promote general intelligence.

Dr. Lord, who was induced by a proposition made to him by gentlemen in Columbus, to become Principal of the Public High School, and Superintendent of the City Schools, in the Ohio School Journal which he commenced in Kirtland, July 1, 1846, and continued its publication in Columbus, in 1847, gives the results of his experience and study of the

operations as to the general plan of conducting these Institutes, in his Journal for September, 1847.

The best mode of securing to teachers such an education as the interests of our youth and the well-being of the country require is, doubtless, through the medium of Normal Schools, or Teachers' Seminaries, devoted entirely to this work. But in the absence of such schools, and of any adequate provision for their education, the only mode in which the present generation of teachers can be improved (aside from their own unaided efforts for self-improvement) is through the agency of Teachers' Institutes.

The exercises of a well-conducted Institute continued for two weeks may be divided into three general classes.

I. A review of the branches usually taught in common schools, with exemplifications of the mode of teaching and illustrating those branches to the different classes of pupils, and of introducing general exercises and instruction in other subjects which should be taught orally in all our schools.

II. Lectures on the classification of pupils, the theory of teaching, the duties of the teacher both as an instructor and an educator, and the best modes of governing schools, securing order, regularity in attendance, diligence in study, propriety in deportment, &c.

III. Evening lectures intended to enlarge the views of teachers, and to awaken the community to a more lively and intelligent interest in the cause of education.

In an article on the history of this class of meetings in the Ohio School Journal for Sept., 1846, Dr. Lord makes the following statement:—

The first important application of the plan in this country with which we are acquainted, was made by the "Boston Academy of Music," in their annual course of instruction to teachers, commenced some ten years since. The first instance in which it was employed for the improvement of the teachers of common schools, was in Hartford, Conn., in the fall of 1839. At that time a "Teachers' or Normal Class" was formed and instructed for four weeks, under the direction of Hon. H. Barnard, Commissioner of Common Schools for the State, and the class was again assembled in the spring and autumn following.

In the spring of 1843, the name of "Teachers' Institute" was first applied to a school of this kind in Ithaca, N. Y. In the fall of 1843 a course of instruction almost precisely similar to that pursued in the Institutes and continued for two weeks, was given to the students of the Western Reserve Teachers' Seminary, which has been repeated in the fall term of each year since, though no school of that *name* was assembled in Ohio till the fall of 1845 at Sandusky.

The Hon. H. Barnard, therefore, has the honor of first employing this mode of instruction for the benefit of common schools, and the State of Connecticut the misfortune of failing to appreciate, adopt, and carry out the plan; Mr. Denman, of New York, the credit of reviving it and giving it a popular name, and the teachers of New York of appreciating and successfully applying it. The State of Rhode Island was the first to recognize Institutes in her school system, and Massachusetts has since incorporated them into her system and secured their formation and maintenance by a liberal endowment.

We have been thus particular in detailing the history of Institutes, because we believe they are destined to become a most efficient means of promoting the educational reform which is now in progress, and which it is confidently believed will be carried forward till the whole Union shall share in its benign results.

On the organization of the Teachers' Association on the 21st of December, 1847, the Executive Committee undertook to provide instruction for any Institute, on which a certain number of teachers would signify their intention to attend. This work was assumed by the Agent of the Association, on the election of Lorin Andrews to that post in 1851.

In February, 1847, the Legislature authorized the County Commis-

sioners in certain counties in which Institutes had been held, to appropriate half the avails of certain funds towards the payment of instruction and lectures, and in 1848 this provision was extended to every county, and unless the sum realized amounted to $100, the balance could be paid out of the tax contingent. Under this provision, and the stimulus of good example, and the energy of the prominent teachers of the Association, Institutes have been held every year in about one half of the counties of the State—much the largest portion of the expenses being borne by the members of each Institute.

The Superintendent (E. E. White) makes the following suggestions in his report for the year ending Aug., 1864:—

The fees collected by county examiners under the provision of the new amendatory school law passed in March, 1864, will make it possible to hold a good Teacher's Institute during the current year in nearly every county of the State. It will be impossible for the Commissioner to meet the demand for his services in this direction, and yet that these Institutes may be successful and efficient, they ought to be conducted by persons competent to instruct teachers in the practical duties of the school-room. An experience of four years in this work, during which time it has been my privilege to visit and give instruction in most of the Institutes held in the State, has convinced me that efficient instructors are greatly needed. Three or four able and earnest men, devoting their entire time to this work, would greatly improve and vitalize our schools.

At the annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association at Toledo, in July last, a resolution was passed requesting the School Commissioner to select two, three, or more men, thoroughly competent to conduct Teachers' Institutes, and pledging the coöperation of the Association in securing for them employment throughout the State. I can find no competent person willing to undertake this work and depend wholly upon the Institutes for support. The fact that many of the Institutes are liable to be held simultaneously, and that those succeeding each other are located at points widely separated, renders continuous Institute work impossible. What is greatly needed to make this important plan successful, is an appropriation by the State of a few hundred dollars, to aid in supporting a good corps of Institute instructors. In several of the States, Institutes are wholly supported by State appropriation. In view of the fact that this State is not paying a dollar to train and qualify teachers, or to aid the Commissioner in the supervision of the schools, such an appropriation is asked for with confidence. An appropriation of $3,000 would keep, in connection with the sum available from the Institute fund, three able and efficient educators constantly in the field.

That the reasonableness of this request may be more apparent, I beg leave to present a comparison between the expenditures for general school supervision in the States of New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio:—

NEW YORK.—Salary of State Superintendent, (traveling expenses paid by State,) $2,500; salary of Deputy Superintendent, $1,500; salary of Office Clerk, $800; salaries of District-School Commissioners, $56,000—total, $60,800.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Salary of State Superintendent and Deputy, $3,200; salaries of three Clerks and Messenger, $4.200; traveling expenses of Superintendent, $300; salaries of County Superintendents, $50,000—total, $57,700.

OHIO.—Salary of State School Commissioner, $1,500; salary of Clerk, $1,000; amount paid to County Examiners, $10,900—$13,400.

A bill for a public act appropriating the sum asked for was reported by the Committee on Schools, passed the House, but was not reached in time to be acted on in the Senate.

In the year ending August, 1864, 24 Institutes were held with 1,689 members in 28 counties, at an expense for instruction of $1,784, and other objects, $386, and of this amount the members contributed $1,784.

RHODE ISLAND.

The first Institutes in Rhode Island were held in 1844, and a more thoroughly organized series of four sessions in November, 1845, by the State Commissioner of Public Schools, (Mr. Barnard.) This State was the first to make it the duty of the chief school officer, in its organic school law, adopted June 15, 1845, "to establish Teachers' Institutes, where teachers and such as propose to teach may become acquainted with the most improved and successful methods of arranging the studies and conducting the discipline of public schools."

In the address made by him to the Legislature in October, 1843, on "The Ways and Means of Introducing and Improving a System of Public Schools," Mr. Barnard dwelt on "the principle and plan of bringing the young and inexperienced teachers, and even the candidates who have had neither professional study nor experience, into living contact with older and eminent teachers, by observation in their school-rooms, by listening to their counsel and suggestions in informal conversation, and by a diligent attendance on their formal instruction and lectures in Conventions, Associations, Normal Classes, (Institutes,) and Seminaries, (Normal Schools.) And as the most direct and efficient measure for interesting, stimulating, and instructing parents and the people generally in school improvement, bring them into the school-room, where the processes and results of good teaching—better management, discipline, and intruction than they enjoyed when children—can be seen and felt; and especially let them form part of every public meeting of an educational character—Conventions, Associations, and *Institutes*—for they are the fountain-heads of all action and especially of all appropriations for public improvements. Unless the heads of parents are enlightened and the hearts of voters as well as of parents are warmed towards the children, you can not have good school-houses, and good teachers—for without parental intelligence and public interest, you can not get the money to build the one or employ the other. No matter how wisely your school system may be framed, it will prove utterly inefficient, unless you establish the agencies by which parents may be informed and enlightened, and teachers—or the young men and young women who are called teachers—can be trained to the right methods of school discipline and instruction." Among other agencies was specified "a chief executive officer to administer the system, and provide for the professional training and improvement of teachers by educational addresses, meetings, conventions, associations, normal classes, and regular professional schools."

In his original "Draft of a School Law," submitted to the Legislature in May, 1844, an appropriation annually for five years was proposed, to enable the Commissioner "to hold a Teachers' Institute in each county, and to establish, or aid in establishing, a Model School at the most accessible point in the county," and one thoroughly organized Normal School.

In the "Remarks" explanatory of each section of the proposed law, submitted to the House of Representatives in May, 1844, Mr. Barnard went into some detail as to the nature and anticipated results of this section. These "Remarks," in a condensed form, were written out, and printed by order of the Senate, in connection with the Act, and under this provision he thus defines and explains what is meant by a "Model School," "Teachers' Institute," and "Normal School:"—

By a *Model School*, as the term is here used, is contemplated an ordinary primary or seconday public school, so organized, instructed, and governed, that teachers of the county, or the neighborhood, and those who propose to teach, can be referred to it as a *model*, in all the essentials of a good school. To accomplish this, the Commissioner should be directed, if called upon by the proper committee, to aid in the selection of a teacher, assist in the organization of the school, and advise as to the methods of instruction and government—all of which would require more time than he would be authorized to devote to any one school, unless for the objects here specified, and under the sanction of the law.

By a *Teachers' Institute* is meant all which is generally understood by a Teachers' Association, and something more. It is an organization of the teachers of a town, county, or State, for improvement in their profession, by meeting for a longer or shorter time for a thorough review of the studies of the public schools, under teachers of acknowledged reputation, as well as for lectures, discussions, and essays on various methods of school discipline and instruction. One of the earliest attempts to establish these Institutes was made in Connecticut, under the auspices of the School Board of that State, in 1839. They are now very numerous in the State of New York, and have been productive of the happiest results.

By a *Normal School* is intended an institution for the *training* of young men and young women who may show the proper talent and feeling to become teachers, under the direct instruction of able and experienced professors, with opportunities of witnessing and conducting the government and instruction of a model school, constituted in all its essential features like ordinary public schools. The experience of other States and countries has shown conclusively that these institutions are the most efficient and certain means of elevating the attainments, character, and practical knowledge of teachers, and of improving rapidly the quality and increasing the amount of education given in public schools, while it is applying to the preparation of teachers the same course which is adopted in every other profession or art.

Before the "Act relating to Public Schools" was passed, Mr. Barnard organized in Sept., 1844, in Washington county, an "Institute" of the teachers of the county, and established at Kingston, the county-seat, a "Model School," under the charge of William S. Baker. Under the direction and instruction of Mr. Baker, in the autumn of 1844, the teachers of the county were assembled at Kingston, Westerly, and other points, for three days, at which written and verbal reports were made by teachers respecting the condition of their respective schools, the difficulties encountered from irregularity of attendance, and want of uniformity of books, the methods of classification, instruction, and government pursued, and the encouragement received from the occasional visits of parents and committees. These meetings were addressed in the evening, when they were crowded by parents, by Mr. Barnard and other speakers. A peculiar feature of these meetings was the presence of a class of children from the Model School, by which demonstrations were made by Mr.

Baker of the methods of teaching spelling, reading, arithmetic, and use of the English language in composition, &c., pursued in this school. This was an "Institute"—something more protracted, varied, and practical, than other educational meetings, and composed of older and younger teachers, conducted on the plan at once of mutual instruction, with the benefits of the guidance and suggestions of experienced preceptors and lecturers, and open at all times, and actually crowded in the evening by parents—who thus were inducted into the inner mysteries of good schools.

After the passage of the School Law of 1845, and the organization of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, and with the personal coöperation of its President, (that veteran teacher, John Kingsbury,) President Wayland, Prof. Gammell, Nathan Bishop, Amos Perry, William S. Baker, and other prominent teachers in the State, and the occasional help of Salem Town, William Russell, William H. Wells, William B. Fowle, Thomas H. Gallaudet, Josiah Holbrook, S. S. Greene, Prof. Davies, and Prof. Thompson, Mr. Barnard commenced in November, 1845, a series of Teachers' Institutes, which proved eminently satisfactory to all connected with them—teachers, (old and young,) school officers, parents, and the public generally—and in connection with other agencies, (the Public Lecture, Educational Tract and Periodical, the Public Press, the Itinerating Agency,) wrought a revolution in the ideas and habits of the people of Rhode Island. His shattered health compelled his resignation before he had embodied the advanced and advancing views of the people and the Legislature (disseminated and planted by means of the Institutes and other agencies) into organized institutions—prominent among which was the permanent establishment of a State Normal School at Providence, in a building large enough to accommodate the class and lecture rooms, apparatus, and library for the school—the office of the School Commissioner—a model library, both Educational and Miscellaneous, (with a plan for selection and purchase by specimen copies at the lowest wholesale price)—and so liberally provided with instructors as to allow of temporary classes to be formed of young teachers to come in from the district-schools for a month, or even a shorter period, and of a detachment of one or more of the professors to assist in holding Teachers' Institutes, at such places as required special attention. He thus refers to the plan in his closing address to the Legislature:—

> Let the munificent offer by Mr. Charles Potter of the Tockwotton House for the purpose of a Normal School—a building having an extent of accommodation admirably adapted to the object, which $30,000, however judiciously laid out, could not furnish—be accepted. Let it be known as the Rhode Island Normal School and Institute of Instruction—the depository of school furniture and apparatus—the office of your Commissioner of Public Schools—the intelligence office of teachers and lecturers—the place for a weekly gathering of school committees and teachers—in fine, the headquarters of education. Such an Institution can be organized on a plan which in five years will place the cause of public instruction in advance of where it will be in twenty years under the operation of present agencies.

The following circular and extracts from the printed proceedings of one of the earliest of this series of Institutes, which were always reported in the Providence and other papers as matter of general interest, will exhibit the method, spirit, and aims of this class of meetings in Rhode Island:—

CIRCULAR.

Arrangements have been made for holding three Teachers' Institutes, at the times and places hereinafter specified, and every teacher of a public school, and all others who propose to offer themselves as candidates for teaching a public school during the ensuing winter or next summer, are invited to attend and take part in the exercises of at least one of these Institutes.

The exercises of the Institute will embrace—

1. A review of the studies usually taught in the public schools of this State with exemplifications of the best method of instruction in each branch, and with special attention to such difficulties as any member of the Institute may have encountered in teaching the same.

2. Familiar lectures and discussions among the members, on the organization of schools, the classification of pupils, and the theory and practice of teaching.

3. Public lectures and discussions in the evening, on topics calculated to interest parents and the community generally, in the subject of education, and the organization, administration, and improvement of public schools.

Although the attendance of several able and experienced instructors in particular branches has been provided, it is expected that members of the Institute will take a leading part in the course of instruction, and in the discussions.

That the exercises may be practical, and suited to the present wants of our schools, every teacher is requested to communicate a list of such topics as he would like to have considered at the session of the Institute which he proposes to attend.

Every member should be present on the first evening of the session; should be provided with a Bible or Testament, a slate and pencil, with pen and ink, or lead pencil, and a blank or common-place book, in which to enter notes, and with the reading-book used by the first class in the school of the town where he teaches, or proposes to teach.

The course of instruction, lectures, room, and lights will be free, and boarding places will be assigned, free of expense, to those who make early application to the Committee of Arrangements.

The Institutes will be held as follows:—

[Place, Time, and Local Committee of each Institute.]

Each Institute will continue in session through the week on which it commences.

School Committees and Trustees of school-districts are respectfully solicited to render every facility in their power to teachers who may be desirous of attending; and all persons interested in the improvement of public schools, or the advancement of education, are invited to be present at the evening session of the Institutes.

HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Public Schools.

The following hasty summary of the proceedings and report of the opening and closing address of the Commissioner at the Institute at Centerville, are taken from the Providence Transcript:—

The Institute met in the Methodist church and was called to order precisely at 7 o'clock—the hour named in the circular appointing the Institute—on Monday evening, Nov. 15th, by Mr. Barnard, Commissioner of Public Schools. The Rev. Mr. Willard, of Crampton, invoked the Divine blessing, and after music by the choir of the church, Mr. Barnard occupied an hour in setting forth the nature, objects, and anticipated results of the Institute which he had appointed at this place for the teachers of Public Schools. The Teachers' Institute as now organized and conducted, was a new and valuable agency in the work of school

improvement. It went directly to the fountain head, and aimed to make better and purer all influences which flowed out from the teacher. It differed from conventions and associations, as these had generally been conducted, inasmuch as it added to written lectures and oral discussions, (which occupied from one to two days, and were ordinarily of a theoretical character in such conventions,) a systematic course of instruction in the best methods of teaching, and in reference to difficulties encountered or apprehended in the school-room, and extending through a session of one or two weeks. Conventions and associations, such as that of the American Institute of Instruction, and the Essex County Teachers' Association, had done much good to the community, and to teachers, and especially to those who had taken an active part in their proceedings. But in a Teachers' Institute, properly conducted, every member takes part—and he does this under the direction or example of accomplished and successful teachers. It acts directly, too, on the teachers now in the schools, and by making the schools better, helps to create in the minds of the parents, who thus see wrought out in their own school, and on their own children, the advantages of improved methods of instruction and discipline, a higher standard of excellence. This is the most powerful argument for school improvement which can be addressed to a community—the contrast between a poor school and a good one, exhibited in their own district, and on their own children, and brought about by teachers made better by being trained or educated to these methods. The Institute thus illustrates imperfectly the benefits of a Normal School, or a course of systematic and practical training for a proper length of time, under accomplished teachers, and with a workshop, as it were, attached, where an apprenticeship in the art of teaching can be served. The peculiar excellence of the Normal School is foreshadowed in the Institute, which thus prepares the public mind for it. The Teachers' Institute, as now conducted, was first tried in Connecticut in 1839; was introduced into New York in 1843; into Rhode Island in 1844; into Massachusetts and Ohio in 1845; into Vermont, New Hampshire, Michigan, and Illinois in 1846; and into Maine and New Jersey in 1847. During the present season, probably 15,000 teachers will have attended for one or two weeks these Institutes in the States above-named, and more than half a million of schools will be better taught and governed in consequence. Most of the schools thus taught will demand a teacher of equally good qualifications next year, and most of the same teachers will attend in the course of another year another Institute, and thus add to their own attainments, and thus carry the standard of qualifications upwards and onwards. This is making teachers their own standard bearers, and the most powerful agencies in educational improvement.

Mr. Barnard pointed out briefly the course of instruction which would be pursued, under teachers of large experience and eminent success, and promised the community a feast of fat things in the evening lectures and discussions. He also dwelt on the good results which would follow from these sessions, in making teachers acquainted with each other and with each other's experience; in bringing their impracticable notions to the test of actual practice; in measuring themselves by others who had thought as much and practiced more; in entering into the results of many trials, of much study, and large experience on the part of good teachers, &c., &c. He dwelt on the importance of punctuality, of becoming individually acquainted with each other, of taking hold with the right spirit—the spirit of learners and of brothers, of conforming, as far as may be, to the regulations of the families whose hospitalities they were receiving, &c. It is impossible to condense into a few paragraphs an address which was extempore, and which was as condensed as it could be in the delivery.

Mr. Barnard was followed by Mr. William H. Wells, who spoke of an Institute which he had lately attended in New Hampshire, and then passed to the importance of thoroughness in instruction, and on the necessity of inspiring scholars with a spirit of self-reliance, a determination to try, a determination not to give up to any difficulty however hard. He illustrated these points very happily by cases which had occurred in his own observation and in his own school.

At the close of the public exercises, at the suggestion of the Commissioner, arrangements were made for the appointment of Secretaries and Committees on the part of the members, and for the time of meeting in the morning.

The following summary will convey an idea of what was done during the week:—

The daily session of the Institute commenced at a quarter before 9 o'clock in the morning, and closed at 12, and at half past 1 o'clock in the afternoon, and closed at 5, with a recess of five or ten minutes at the close of every hour. During the recess, the windows and doors were opened for a change of air, and music and conversation attuned body and mind for the next exercise.

During the week, the following exercises were conducted by the gentlemen named, with the teachers as scholars, having in each exercise special reference to the best method of presenting the same and similar exercises in Public Schools, as ordinarily organized, viz.: one exercise in reading the Scriptures, as a devotional exercise, by Mr. Russell; two in spelling, by Mr. Wells; five in arithmetic, by Messrs. Wells, Mowry, and Baker; ten in reading, including exercises in the elementary sounds, pronunciation, and the general principles of elocution, by Mr. Russell; four in grammar, by Mr. Wells; three in composition, including punctuation, letter writing, &c., by Mr. Wells; one in analysis of language in connection with Green's Grammatical Chart, by Mr. Perry; one in geography, including map drawing, by Messrs. Patterson and Mowry: one in the use of globes, by Mr. Cornell; and one on oral instruction, by Mr. Wells. In the course of these exercises, many members of the Institute made valuable suggestions as to their own methods, and asked questions which brought out important explanations.

A portion of each evening was occupied by lectures and addresses, calculated to interest the community generally. These were delivered as follows: on Monday, by the Commissioner of Public Schools, and Mr. Wells; on Tuesday, by Mr. Russell; on Wednesday, by Mr. Wells; on Thursday, by Mr. Russell; on Friday, by Mr. Russell, Mr. Kingsbury, and Mr. Barnard.

The following are among the topics on which remarks were made during the several evenings by the speakers named, viz.:

The length and frequency of recess in the daily sessions of a school, by Messrs. Winsor, Weeks, Patterson, Tillinghast, Sherman, and Legate.

Whispering, or communication in school, by Messrs. Baker, Legate, Sherman, Winsor, Russell, Wells, Doe, Chapman, and Paine.

Neatness in and about the school-room, by Messrs. Weeks, Perry, Sherman, Baker, Kingsbury, and Barnard.

Punctuality and regularity of attendance, by Messrs. Kingsbury, Perry, Mowry, and Sherman.

Management of bad boys in school, by Messrs. Weeks and Winsor.

Remarks were also made on *oral instruction; cheerfulness in the school-room; self-possession and self-reliance in scholars; school discipline; the responsibilities of teachers; the care of health; Normal Schools; town and district libraries; professional reading by teachers, &c., &c.*

The place of meeting was crowded every evening by the citizens of the place and neighborhood, who remained together on almost every occasion for three or four hours, and at the close of the exercises on Friday night, the following resolution was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That this community have felt a deep interest in the exercises of the Teachers' Institute held among us during the present week, and we regard it as a *special favor*, that the teachers resorted to this place, as the one in which the able lectures on subjects pertaining to education should be presented, and the thorough training in some of the prominent branches should be exhibited.

Mr. Barnard, at the close of the Institute on Friday evening, cautioned the teachers—and especially the young and inexperienced teachers—against a hasty adoption of any method which they had seen or heard presented here, until they had made it their own by due consideration, observation, and practice. Every good teacher must have his own methods, and must make them the basis or stock upon which to build or ingraft the views and methods of others. Even when they have made themselves masters of new and improved methods of instruction, they should not alarm the prejudices of the community by the promise of any thing very new or great. They must carry good common sense—a quality too often wanting in young teachers, and only to be acquired by looking at things as they are, and studying to make the most of surrounding circum-

stances—into all their operations. They must be punctual if they expect their scholars to be punctual. They must be moral and religious men if they would make their instructions the fountain of moral and religious influence to their schools. They must look after the physical condition of their scholars, to the ventilation of the school-room, to the fires, to the manner in which children are seated, to frequent change of position, and to an alternation of study and exercise, to the light, and all the circumstances which determine the physical comfort of children in school, if they expect them to study and to love the school. They must look to their own manners, to their own dress and the care of their own persons, even to the scraping of their shoes and boots at the door, and to the depositing of their own hats and overcoats in their appropriate places, to their own postures and movements in the school-room, to the manner in which they address the scholars both in and out of school, and especially to their own intercourse with parents and others in the family circle, if they would be instructors in good manners, a department of education too much overlooked in our common schools. Teachers must look to their own health. Many of them will pass from active occupation in the field or the shop to the close atmosphere and confined labors of the school-room, and headache and dyspepsia will follow, and with these will come irritability of temper, frequent application of the rod, &c. Much of the punishment of our schools comes from a bad digestion in the teacher. They must cultivate the acquaintance of parents, invite them to their schools, and even lead them in, if they will not go in voluntarily. They must continue the work of their own improvement. They must study and familiarize themselves with the manifold uses of the blackboard, of globes, and other forms of apparatus. They must read good books on the theory and practice of teaching—such as the School and Schoolmaster, Page's Theory and Practice, Fowles' Institutes, &c., &c. They should take at least one Educational Journal. They should visit each other's schools. Let every other Friday afternoon or Saturday morning be devoted to this purpose, and the alternate Saturday be devoted to Teachers' Meetings. Mr. Barnard cautioned the teachers against considering this Institute or any Institute as a substitute for thorough study and practical training, or as an easy and short process for transferring the results of long and successful experience of one teacher into the head and hearts of a young and a heedless one. The Institute has its place in a system of measures for improving the qualifications of teachers, by exciting the spirit of study and of their profession, by rubbing down the rough points of manner and character in the collision of mind with mind, by exemplifying good methods, and by that personal example of such instructors as have favored this Institute by their presence and services. No teacher can have witnessed the courteous manners, and the thorough instruction, even for a day, of such gentlemen, without having a better standard of a teacher in his mind. In conclusion, he bid them be of good cheer, stand by the cause, and the cause would uphold them—let each make himself a better man, and he will become a better teacher.

A peculiar feature in the operations of Mr. Barnard respecting Institutes in Rhode Island was the practice of holding in advance a large number of educational meetings in the county in which an Institute was appointed, and at least one in the place where the Institute would be held; and during the progress of the session, to detail such of the lecturers and instructors as could be spared in the evenings to deliver addresses in adjoining towns.

Another practice was to place in the hands of each member, to be filled up, a set of printed questions, as to age, residence, previous opportunities as to education, professional training, and experience, attendance on Institutes and Associations, subscription to a School Journal, ownership and perusal of Books on Teaching, and subjects for discussion, and difficulties to be considered.

MASSACHUSETTS.

The first Teachers' Institute in Massachusetts was held in Pittsfield in 1845, commencing October 21, and continuing in session ten days—and similar gatherings were held in three other counties, each for the same period, under an appointment of the Secretary of the Board of Education, (Hon. Horace Mann,) who thus describes the experiment in his "Ninth Annual Report," dated Dec. 10, 1845:—

Early last summer, when explaining to that liberal and well-known friend of our Common Schools, the Hon. Edmund Dwight, the advantages which might accrue from holding Teachers' Institutes in Massachusetts; and stating my apprehensions to him, that an obstacle to their adoption might arise from their expense, which the country teachers, on account of their small compensation, might feel unable to incur, he generously placed at my disposal the sum of one thousand dollars, to be expended in such manner as might be deemed most expedient for promoting the object. This sum was amply sufficient for a fair trial of the experiment, as will be seen by the following plan:—Suppose the number of four Institutes to be decided on; suppose ten working days to be fixed upon as the time for their continuance; and suppose a bounty of two dollars, towards defraying the expenses of board, to be offered to each of the first hundred who should apply for admission as members—there would still remain a sufficient sum to pay for rooms, lights, attendance, and so forth, and to defray the *actual expenses* of teachers and lecturers. It was presumed that a sufficient number of eminent teachers and lecturers could be found, whose personal services would be gratuitously given for so noble an object—an expectation which was not disappointed. Such being an outline of the plan contemplated, it became necessary to decide upon the places where the Institutes should be held. Perhaps there was no great difference in point of eligibility between many different places in the State that could be named. Still, however, a selection must be made; and the choice of one place necessarily involved the exclusion of others. I make this remark, because now, since the Institutes have so admirably succeeded, the question is sometimes put to me, by persons living in different localities, why some town in their own vicinity had not been chosen. After the best consideration that could be given to the subject, the towns of Pittsfield, in the county of Berkshire; of Fitchburg, in the county of Worcester; of Bridgewater, in the county of Plymouth, and of Chatham, in the county of Barnstable, were designated. A circular letter was issued, which was published in the newspapers, and copies of which were sent to school committees in the vicinity. All the Institutes were included within a period of five weeks, so as, at once, to improve the most favorable season of the year, and to close the latest, before the customary time for commening the winter schools. Of course, some of the preceding overlaid the time of the succeeding.

After giving somewhat in detail the plan, substance, and method of the exercises, the Secretary closes his account with these remarks:—

I feel bound, before leaving this subject, to bear public testimony to the exemplary conduct, the earnestness, and the teachableness of the members composing the Institutes. They seemed to be alike conscious of deficiencies and anxious to supply them. They seemed to occupy that honorable middle ground, which is equally remote from the arrogance that blindly rejects, and the servility that blindly receives. The whole number that attended was about four hundred. More applied than could be received. The number of applicants at Fitchburg was one hundred and seventy-seven. I believe the members all carried away some new ideas in regard to the art of teaching, deeper impressions in regard to the dignity and sacredness of their office, and a more heartfelt devotedness to duty. Before the end of another year twenty thousand children will come within the circle of their augmented powers of beneficence.

I hope it may be deemed advisable by the Board to commend Teachers' Institutes to the patronage of the Legislature. Though no substitutes for the Normal Schools, yet they have the same object in view. They will, in the first place, obtain most valuable ideas and suggestions from those schools; and in return, they will send better prepared pupils to them.

In the following year (1846) the Legislature placed $2,500 a-year at the disposal of the Board of Education to defray certain expenses incident to this class of meetings, and authorizing the Board to appoint a time and place for an Institute whenever seventy teachers shall desire to form one, and to remain in session not less than ten working days—provided that not more than $200 is expended on any one Institute. The provisions of the law of 1846 were modified in 1848 and subsequently, by which the total sum appropriated was increased to $3,000, and for each Institute to $350, and a call could be issued on the assurance of an attendance of fifty teachers, and the period of each session also determined, which is now generally limited to one week.

Mr. Boutwell (in the *24th Annual Report* of the Secretary of the Board) in 1860 makes the following remarks on the subject of Teachers' Institutes, of which one hundred and forty-six had been held up to 1860:—

A call is now authorized whenever an assurance is given that fifty teachers desire to attend. As a fact of experience, the number is not often less than seventy-five, and the average attendance has considerably exceeded one hundred. But large Institutes are not in all respects desirable; indeed, I am of opinion that one hundred and fifty is the maximum. The most good is accomplished when the attendance is between eighty and one hundred and fifty. When the number of members is small, there is more difficulty in awakening a general interest, and when the number is large, there are usually many who are not intensely and personally concerned in the proceedings. Such persons are a weight in themselves, and they do something to divert the attention of the more devoted. The instruction given in an Institute is usually a compound of a lecture and a teaching exercise; and it is well understood by teachers that no one can teach even as many as fifty at a time. The audience of a lecturer may be large; that of the teacher is necessarily limited, and however large the assembly may be, his audience, depending upon the subject and the manner of teaching, may be reduced to fifty, twenty, ten, or even five persons; ordinarily, however, a hundred persons can be interested constantly in the proceedings of a Teachers' Institute.

It seems proper to call the attention of school committees to the importance of the Institute to those teachers who are in their service. Difficulties have arisen occasionally, between teachers and committees, in regard to time used by the former in attendance upon sessions of the Institutes. The first obligation is no doubt upon the teachers who are to qualify themselves for the skillful performance of their labors; but it is also true that a city or town that is enjoying the services of competent teachers, who are employed by the year, can well afford to allow such persons to spend a week in the Institute without pecuniary loss to themselves.

In the small towns, where teachers are employed by the town, and changes are frequent, the expense must be borne by the teachers themselves. For the convenience of this large class, the sessions of the Institute are held at the time of the spring and autumn vacations. The value of the Institute is well established by experience; and it only remains to render its influence more general and beneficial. It will always be difficult in the limited period of five days to introduce exercises that shall be acceptable to all. The elements must not be neglected, and for the inexperienced there will always be occasion to introduce primary teaching exercises. Teachers of experience may not be benefited, but

the beginners are those who most need the advantages of the Institute. In the face of considerable honest criticism the Institute has thus far sought to suggest the best means of teaching the elements of the principal branches studied in the common schools. In consequence of the improved qualifications of teachers generally, it may not be necessary to pursue this policy rigidly hereafter. It can not, however, be entirely abandoned, and the public may ever abide in the belief that he who can teach the elements in a proper manner, may easily become a teacher in all science and literature.

The practice in Massachusetts in reference to the chair of instructors is to employ certain gentlemen of eminent ability in their respective branches of instruction—as for instance, Prof. W. Russell in Reading, Prof. C. D. Colburn in Arithmetic, Prof. S. S. Greene in Grammar, Prof. Agassiz in Natural History, Prof. Tenney in Geology, &c., who attend, as far as practicable, each Institute for the season. No Institutes in the country are conducted by so large a teaching and lecturing force at each meeting.

NOTE.

The following table will exhibit the expenditures by the State of Massachusetts for Teachers' Institutes, as well as for other educational purposes, in the year 1864:—

Normal Schools,	$20,000.00	
" " Buildings,	2,490.85	
Teachers' Institutes,	2,800.00	
State Teachers' Association,	600.00	
County Teachers' Associations,	450.00	
American Institute of Instruction,	300.00	
State Scholarship,	3,500.00	
Indians' School,	584.00	
Secretary's Salary,	2,200.00	
Assistant Secretary's Salary,	1,500.00	
Agent of the Board of Education,	2,200.00	
Expenses of the Board,	125.89	
Postage, Printing School Report, &c.,	6,938.55	
		$43,689.29
Reformatory.		
State Reform School,	$ 2,273.08	
" " " Expenses,	41,416.49	
Nautical Branch of Reform School,	22,161.65	
Industrial School for Girls,	12,000.00	
		77,851.22
Charitable.		
Asylum for Deaf and Dumb,	$ 8,717.92	
Asylum for the Blind,	12,000.00	
School for Idiots,	9,000.00	29,717,92
		$151,258.43

The main expense of supporting public schools in each city and town in Massachusetts is borne by a direct tax on the property of such cities and towns, levied by the legal voters thereof. The amount thus raised in 1863–4 was as follows:—

For support of Public Schools, (wages of teachers, board, fuel, &c.,)	$1,536,314.31
For apparatus, contributions to prolong school, &c.,	27,259.05
To which add appropriations from the School Fund to cities and towns,	50,323.29

The amount raised by tax (exclusive of taxes for school-houses) averages $6.38 per child between the ages of five and fifteen years. The aggregate amount expended on public and private schools exceeds $3,000,000—or $13.00 for each person of school age, or $2.50 for every one of the entire population.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HANOVER.

TERRITORY. POPULATION.

THE KINGDOM OF HANOVER, ranking fifth in importance among the Confederated States of Germany, lies in a somewhat quadrangular form between the German Ocean upon the north and the Prussian States upon the south, having Holland upon the west, and the Elbe separating it from Denmark and Mecklenburg upon the north-east. The grand-duchy of Oldenburg divides it from north to south into two unequal portions. Its territory and population are distributed as follows:—

Provinces.	Area.	Pop. in 1861.	Capitals.	Pop. in 1861.
Hanover, ...	2,300 sq. m.	368,973	Hanover, ...	71,170
Hildesheim, ...	1,708 "	366,766	Hildesheim, ...	17,134
Lüneburg, ...	4,293 "	367,669	Lüneburg, ...	14,411
Stade, ...	2,596 "	296,626	Stade, ...	7,000
Osnabrück, ...	2,388 "	262,316	Osnabrück, ...	16,180
Aurich, ...	1,144 "	192,329	Aurich, ...	5,500
Mining District,	242 "	33,391	Clausthal, ...	16,000
Total, ...	14,671 "	1,888,070		

In the southern portion lie the Hartz and other mountain ranges, from the base of which the land extends in a broad plain to the sea-coast, which is low and protected from the ocean by dykes. The mountains abound with minerals, forming one of the chief sources of wealth and employment, and are covered with dense woods. The valleys between are fertile, but to the north the country is traversed from east to west by a sandy tract, known as the Lüneburg Heath, the "Arabia of Germany," where the inhabitants gain a scanty subsistence by raising sheep and keeping bees. Great marshes and peat moors cover the north and north-west, with fertile districts along the banks of the rivers. The arable land comprises but 40 per cent. of the whole territory, while 15 per cent. is covered with forests, and the remainder is waste or occupied by rivers and lakes. Agriculture is in a very backward state, but, with the raising of cattle and poultry, and mining, is the principal occupation of the people.

The population is divided as follows:—Lutherans, 1,555,448; Catholics, (confined almost entirely to the provinces of Hildesheim and Osnabrück,) 221,576; Reformed, 97,018; Jews, 12,085; other denominations, 1,943. Religious matters are under the direction of the five Lutheran

(Evangelical) and Reformed consistories, the see of Osnabrück, held alternately by a Catholic and a secular Protestant bishop, and the Catholic see of Hildesheim. The territory is, on the whole, thinly peopled, and has comparatively fewer towns of importance than any other German State. Low German is the prevalent language in all the rural districts, excepting those bordering upon Holland, where Dutch is usually spoken, while High German, as in every other part of Germany, is the language of the educated and higher classes, and is made the medium of instruction. This difference of language necessarily acts greatly against the advancement of the people. The inhabitants are everywhere industrious and temperate, laboring without discontent for the smallest possible remuneration, but exceedingly obstinate in their adherence to ancient customs.

The government is a hereditary monarchy, with a council of State, comprising seven responsible members, each having charge of a special department of the administration. The two representative and partially elective chambers are called together biennially, while the diet meets but once in seven years. There are also seven provincial assemblies, whose concurrence and assent are necessary for the promulgation of laws and the laying of taxes within their several districts. The nobility is noted as the most arrogant in Germany and the least advanced in modern liberal ideas. In many parts the feudal jurisdictions still exist, and the judicial and executive authority is still in many instances united. Only since 1848 have criminal causes been tried before sworn juries.

HISTORY.

The first steps towards civilization were taken by Charlemagne, who subdued the Saxon tribes then in possession of the territory, and introduced Christianity. After the dissolution of the Frankish empire, it formed a part of the Duchy of Saxony until the time of Henry the Lion, well known in the history of the Crusades, and the first Guelph Duke of Brunswick, who did much to advance the civilization and commerce of his subjects by conferring rights and privileges upon several of the towns; but falling under the ban of the empire, he lost the duchy and retained only Brunswick and Lüneburg, (the present Hanover.) He married a daughter of Henry II., King of England, and originated the houses of Brunswick and Lüneburg. The Reformation numbered the princes of Brunswick among its most zealous supporters, though strongly opposed by the majority of the nobles and many of the chief magistrates. Duke Ernest was one of the most eloquent defenders of Luther at the Diet of Worms, and his endeavors to improve his people by establishing clerical and general schools prove him a man of enlightened views. His grandson married a granddaughter of James I. of England, and George Louis, the issue of the marriage, became king of England in 1714, from which time till 1837 both England and Hanover were under the same sovereign. By this union the revenues of Hanover in the burden of maintaining a court were spared at the expense of those of England, and

the kingdom was also in various other respects benefited. In 1745 George II. founded the university of Göttingen. During the French wars the territory was held in turn by Prussia and France, but on the expulsion of the French, in 1814, it was restored to its former possessors and raised to the rank of a kingdom, and with their return was brought back the whole mass of abuses belonging to a past age, which had been abolished by the French. In the same year the diet was convoked for the purpose of consolidating the various independent governments of the different provinces, and in 1819 a new constitution was granted, modeled upon that of England and France, though but little was done towards the amelioration of the administration. The general dissatisfaction had increased to such a pitch when William IV. ascended the throne in 1833 that the States were again assembled by him, the constitution was thoroughly remodeled and new elections followed. The new chambers were actively engaged in reforming abuses and introducing economy into the state disbursements, when the death of the king, in 1837, placed the power, through the operation of the Salic law, in the hands of Ernest August, eldest surviving son of George III. He immediately abrogated the new constitution and restored that of 1819, and till 1848, when the success of the French revolution forced the German rulers to adopt a more liberal policy, he showed himself resolutely averse to all reforms. Liberal measures were, however, at length introduced under a new constitution, and the king himself organized some useful reforms in the administration and effected great improvements in some of the cities. Unlike many of his contemporaries, King Ernest kept the promises which he then made to his people, refusing to yield to the appeals of the nobility for the restoration of their ancient privileges, and such confidence was placed in his word that his death in 1851 was regarded as a serious blow to the cause of reform. His successor, George V., though holding extreme views regarding kingly power and the claims of the aristocracy, was checked in any marked retrogressive movement by the decisive stand of the chambers. In 1855, however, the constitution underwent various modifications, which were received with dissatisfaction but met with no serious opposition, and since then the nation has passively tolerated the illiberal policy of the king and ministry.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

1. *History of Legislation.*

In Hanover, as elsewhere, public schools were first called into existence by Evangelical Protestantism and commenced simultaneously with the publication of the "Church Regulations," which were issued to the several provinces soon after the introduction of the Reformation. The so-called "German writing and ciphering schools," that previously existed in many of the cities, can not properly claim the title of public schools, and though the church regulations treated especially of "Latin" schools, yet they also explicitly required that "German" schools, and

female schools especially, should be established everywhere and in the level districts particularly, for instruction in the prayers and catechism, reading, writing, singing, arithmetic, and sewing—requiring a German school in connection with every parsonage, or else locating there a special schoolmaster, or even schoolmistress, and requiring that girls should be instructed wherever there were nunneries. But these regulations, as they were not made compulsory by the authorities, became effective only gradually and as the evidence of the necessity of public schools followed upon the constantly extending custom of catechising in church and preaching to the children, and the publication of Luther's small catechism in various forms, which itself was incorporated into the church regulations. Moreover, what was at first done in this direction was swept away by the storms of the thirty years' war; so that upon the return of peace the work had to be commenced anew.

The first ordinance that bore strictly upon the internal organization of the public schools was published in 1650 by Duke George William, of the provinces of Hanover and Hildesheim, containing regulations respecting school attendance, summer schools, school dues, supervision, discipline, and catechising. Every child of six years was required to attend school until able to read and to repeat understandingly the prayers of Luther's catechism, and this was made a condition to admission to communion; in summer, the instruction was limited to an hour on Saturday and Sunday; the schools should be visited by the pastors at least twice a week, &c. The ordinance of his successor, Duke Ernest August, in 1684, was of nearly similar import. In 1687 the same duke issued a carefully prepared school ordinance for the newly acquired territory of Dannenberg, requiring the establishment of school-districts and the erection of schoolhouses, and that schools should be continued through the summer, if only for the younger children. It was made the duty of superintendents and pastors to see that none but capable men were appointed as teachers, though tradesmen could be accepted in some cases. An unsuccessful attempt was made to extend these regulations to the province of Lüneburg. The edict of George II., in 1784, respecting instruction in this province, required the children in the rural districts to attend school regularly for only three quarters, from Michælmas to St. John's day, or for a less time in case of necessity and with the consent of the pastor, though they should then still attend the Sunday catechising and two hours of instruction during the week. He at the same time required, in the province of Hanover, that the children should attend school from the sixth to the close of the fourteenth year, and should receive instruction from the pastor, several times a week, for at least six months before confirmation. The university of Göttingen was established in 1736, but the desire that popular education in the public schools should advance equally with liberal culture in the higher institutions is shown by the many official enactments of that period, as well as by the acts of the consistory, for the more thorough carrying into effect of these school regula-

tions. Schoolmasters were forbidden to occupy the time of the children in their own housework, to neglect their instruction on account of a trade or for the attendance of weddings or funerals, or to exact a special fee for instruction in writing and arithmetic. Superintendents could engage teachers only with the approval of the consistory, and upon the occurrence of any vacancy they were required to nominate to the consistory two persons suitable for the position, with the necessary testimonials. They should also visit the churches and schools regularly once a year. The teachers must appear once a month before the pastors for their own instruction, and should be present at the Sunday instruction of the children. Students at the university and after graduation were obliged to engage in catechising and in school teaching. It was made the duty of the magistrates to insist upon the regular attendance of the children at school and to employ parish herdsmen that the care of the cattle might not be an excuse for the absence of the children. In the province of Lüneburg the maintenance of summer schools was more difficult and the attendance of the children more irregular than in the other provinces.

The school ordinance for the province of Stade, issued in 1752, was substantially the same as those already mentioned. In the province of Osnabrück, which was annexed to the kingdom of Hanover in 1803, there have never existed church or school regulations, excepting in the Calvinist county of Bentheim, where was a church ordinance since 1708 requiring the teachers to subscribe to the Heidelberg catechism and to hold their schools throughout the year, excepting four months of vacation. The province of Aurich, ceded to Hanover in 1815, received in 1631 church regulations similar to those of Lüneburg, and after 1763 was subject to the general school regulations of Prussia. In the province of Hildesheim, also annexed to Hanover in 1815, a school ordinance was passed in 1785, but remaining inoperative, it was confirmed anew by an ordinance of the consistory in 1769. To relieve the burden upon the parents, the school age was fixed between the fourth and the eleventh or twelfth years, and the children, large and small alike, were to receive but three hours of instruction daily. But this innovation excited such opposition in the parishes that the old order of things was restored. Regulations for the Catholic schools were made by the bishop of Hildesheim in 1736 and renewed in 1763, requiring school to be maintained through the year, and the time of attendance shortened only for the poor.

The first school in Hanover for the training of teachers originated in 1751 in connection with a free school for poor children, endowed and furnished with the necessary buildings through the liberality of a private citizen. The number of seminarists was fixed at thirty, who remained three years in the institution free of expense, and had charge of the free school. By judicious management this seminary soon gained a more than provincial renown. It was soon increased by the addition of the so-called "Institute for After-training," for badly prepared country teachers already in office, which was supported by an appropriation from

the king. In 1800 a preparatory school was added for such young men as wished to engage as soon as possible in some of the numerous small country schools. Their number was at first 16, increased afterwards to 32, and again to 56; they remain six months, (but three months, previous to 1836,) paying a trifle for board. The seminary at Alfeld, in Hildesheim, was founded in 1800 upon the basis of a small private institution; in 1815 assistance was granted it from the public treasury, and it was afterwards wholly adopted by the government. In like manner the seminaries at Stade and Osnabrück were founded and in 1821–2 became state institutions. In the other provinces, the object has been effected by small private "Schoolmasters' Schools," and in the Catholic dioceses by two "Normal Schools." The state appropriation has amounted, annually, since 1834, and until 1850, to about 5,280 thalers, ($3,900,) besides about 1,500 thalers ($1,100) from the general convent fund.

A movement of great influence upon the cause of general popular education was the removal from the schools, in about 1790, of the church catechisms hitherto in use, (Walther's of 1658, Gesenius' of 1685, and others,) and the introduction of a "National Catechism," holding an intermediate place between orthodoxy and heterodoxy. It was adopted without opposition in the several provinces, though Luther's catechism was still retained in the consistorial district of Osnabrück, and the old catechism of Sötefleisch in the district of Stade.

The salaries of the teachers, as paid in money, were so miserably small that in the province of Hanover in 1775, over 700 received not more than thirty thalers ($22) annually, and some not more than ten or twenty. This induced the same individual whose liberality had founded the first normal school, the merchant Bötcher, to establish a considerable fund in 1769, the interest of which should be distributed among such parishes as increased their salaries. In 1775 George III. made an annual grant of 1,000 thalers for the benefit of such teachers as were most destitute, and the consistories also, at the same time, through the pastors and parishes, effected some little improvement. From 1793 to 1803 the provincial governments made appropriations for this object, and also after the war the diet consented to an annual grant of 7,270 thalers. In 1818 the "general convent fund" was founded, contributing about 18,600 thalers annually; yet even in 1845 the average income of teachers did not exceed 102 thalers, ($75,) and of the 3,426 in the kingdom, 851 had no fixed residence, 356 boarded in the different families by turn, 436 received less than 26 thalers salary, 785 less than 51, and 477 less than 75 thalers.

The law which first gave a common basis to all the schools within the kingdom was that of May, 1845. This ordinance regulated the supervision of schools, the subjects of instruction, school sessions and attendance, school obligations and duties, private instruction, rights of patronage and appointment, and the location of teachers, school societies, their rules and duties in relation to the endowment and improvement of teacher-

ships, school lands and buildings, school funds, boarding around, and the distribution of the appropriations from the national treasury. At the same time the amount of the state appropriation was increased first to 14,000, and afterwards to 80,000 thalers annually, and the zeal of the authorities for the improvement of schools and all appertaining to them was awakened throughout the whole territory to a degree never before known, which the political movements of 1848 and the new appropriations since made have only tended to increase. The whole territory was divided into school-districts, and the salary of the (2,004) teachers was fixed at a minimum of 80 thalers, with board in the families, or 80 thalers, excluding lodging. The system of "boarding around" was abolished, or restricted, wherever possible, and a change of lodging-place could be made but once a year. Where there were special means for it, the salaries were raised to 150 thalers in the country and village parishes, and to 300 thalers in the cities. The law has since been amended in some points by special ordinance, respecting the time and subjects of instruction, school attendance, &c.

In October, 1848, was passed a law respecting school superintendence, requiring that in every school-district there should be a school committee, consisting either of the church committee, or of the pastor, as chairman, the teacher, and several citizens chosen by the parish. It was made the duty of this committee to represent the school-district, manage its financial affairs, and to coöperate with the pastor, whose special duty it was, in the supervision of the school. This law has been almost everywhere carried into execution.

In 1850 the Diet made the following annual appropriations:—5,000 thalers for the pensioning of teachers, which was increased in 1857 to 6,000 thalers; 5,000 thalers for the support of the widows of teachers; 15,000 thalers for the increase of the salaries of old teachers; and 10,000 thalers for the education of teachers and especially for the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries. This amount was increased shortly afterwards to 20,000 thalers, and in 1852 a special grant of 30,360 thalers was made for the founding of certain normal schools.

Through the aid of these appropriations there now exist within the kingdom the following normal schools:—In the city of Hanover, the "Preparatory Institute," now made an independent normal school for the training of country teachers for the province, with a one-year's course and 32 pupils; the "Head Seminary," for preparing city teachers for the provinces of Hanover and Lüneburg, with a three-years' course and about 24 students; and the "Institute for After-training," usually attended by 12 country teachers for four weeks in summer;—At Alfeld, a boarding seminary, for the city and country schools of Hildesheim, with 50 pupils and a course of one, two, or three years;—At Lüneburg, for the country schools of the province, a boarding seminary for 32 pupils, with a one-year's course;—At Aurich, a Normal School for 26 pupils, with a two-years' course;—At Stade, a Seminary with a higher de-

partment for 20 pupils, with a three-years' course, and a lower department for teachers of country schools, with 40–50 pupils and a one-year's course;—At Neuenhaus, a small school for the country teachers of the Calvinist county of Bentheim, with 6–10 pupils and a single year's course;—At Osnabrück, a Protestant and a Catholic seminary, the first with 24 pupils and three years' course, the latter with 30 pupils, including females, and a two-years' course;—There is also at Hildesheim a Catholic Normal School, with a two-years' course and 12 pupils. Five of these institutions possess gardens for instruction in husbandry, the number of teachers has been increased, the apparatus of instruction made complete, and the buildings contain family rooms for the director and usually one other teacher, and a lodging room for an unmarried teacher.

The funds granted by the state for the assistance of needy teachers are placed at the disposal of the consistories, to be distributed in connection with their own funds, according to certain fixed rates. These, with the revenue of other special funds devoted to the same object, amount to some 12,000 thalers. In 1856, previous appropriations and the operation of the new school law having succeeded but imperfectly in placing the teachers in a sufficiently comfortable position, a new law was passed for the improvement of the condition of teachers, and an annual grant was made of 20,000 thalers for the purpose of carrying it into effect.

A debate in the Diet in 1849, based upon a project advanced by the government for the establishment of a public-school system, resulted in the conclusion that there ought to be formed neither a general Board of Education for the supervision of primary and secondary schools, nor provincial school authorities distinct from the consistories, "for the public schools must retain their ecclesiastical and sectarian character." Instead, a schoolman was placed in the Department of Public Worship as referee for the management of school matters, who acted as general superintendent of public schools and Teachers' Seminaries; under the law of February, 1851, however, a member has been added to each Protestant consistory, who is practically acquainted with schools, and bears the title of Superior School Inspector, while there has been formed a special board in the Department of Public Worship, consisting of the above-mentioned expert, with a legal and an ecclesiastical member, under the presidency of the consistorial director. In the consistory of Aurich, the Lutheran and Calvinist sects have each an Inspector, and in the consistory of Hanover, owing to its extent, there are three. The Inspector should visit every year a portion of the public schools of his district, but he has no independent authority. In important matters, and in the location and dismissal of teachers, the action of a full board of the consistory is necessary; the Inspector, however, has a vote on such occasions, and acts usually also as referee in the location of teachers. He acts also as superintendent of the normal school of his district, and in Aurich, Osnabrück, and Bentheim the management of the seminaries is committed to him.

The ecclesiastical character of the schools is thus duly preserved. The personal knowledge which the Inspectors gain of the circumstances and wants of schools and teachers can not but result favorably to the schools, while they form a medium of communication on the one hand between the higher authorities and the subordinate institutions and persons, and on the other between the seminaries and the public schools. In May, 1859, appeared a royal ordinance placing the supervision of such institutions as may be classed neither as primary nor secondary—the intermediate and higher burgher schools and female seminaries—with the Department of Public Worship, and subordinately with the consistorial authorities. It remains to be mentioned as a circumstance of great importance, that since the discontinuance of the present rationalistic catechism was determined upon by the crown in 1856, the introduction of a new national catechism (a revision of that of Walther) may speedily be expected.

2. *Features of the Present Law and Administration.*

The legal school age commences with the seventh year, and ends generally with the fourteenth, which is the age of confirmation. Attendance at school may be deferred by consent of the Ministry in case of necessity, and those of younger age may be admitted upon condition of payment of the school-rates and if their admission be not injurious to the school. Within these ages attendance at a public school is compulsory, unless the child's education is effected at some higher institution or under competent private teachers. The private teacher must be approved by the superintending pastor, or produce testimonials of his fitness when required to do so, and his instruction must embrace the subjects prescribed for the public school. This provision excludes the numerous "hedge-schools" that have hitherto existed. If his school includes the children of more than two families, attendance does not exempt from the payment of school dues, and if the ability of the teacher be doubted or the school prove injurious to the public schools, it may be wholly prohibited or restricted within certain limits.

The duty of establishing and supporting schools rests upon the school parish, so far as individuals, corporations, or special funds are not legally bound or are insufficient. The church parishes also very frequently coöperate, when the duties of clerk or organist are joined to those of the teacher. When other means fail, assistance is rendered by the state. The school-rates form an essential part of the teacher's income, formerly not more than one-third of a thaler (25 cents) annually, but now greatly increased and may average a thaler for each child. The parish may, however, raise his salary in any other manner. The dues are not exacted for children who attend a higher public school or are privately instructed, for those who are detained away by illness for more than three months, or who reside and attend school without the district. The excess above two from the same family pay but half rates. Poor children are provided for from the church funds and special endowments, paid quarterly or at shorter intervals as may become customary. The addi-

tional dues formerly exacted for instruction in writing and arithmetic, are now included in the usual fees. Besides the money-rates, there are in the country various taxes paid in kind, as eggs, butter, sausages, &c. In Lüneburg the rates are regulated by the number of families instead of children. Where the sums needed for the improvement of the teacher's salary can be raised in no other way, a tax is laid upon the members of the parish in such proportion as may be agreed upon or as is customary in the assessment of other taxes. If the number of children exceeds 120, an assistant teacher can be employed, and a second school may be established if they exceed 200, or the school parish may be divided.

The right of general supervision belonging to the sovereign is exercised by the Department of Public Worship, either directly, in certain cases, or indirectly through the consistorial authorities. The immediate oversight of the schools belongs to the pastor and church authorities, the pastor's authority extending not only to matters of instruction but to the official conduct of the teacher, discipline, attendance, and conduct of the children. The coöperation of the school committee, aside from their determination of the time during which instruction is to be given, vacations, &c., is limited to reports and recommendations to the pastors, or higher authorities. They should also endeavor to promote the regular attendance, order, and good conduct of the pupils, and harmony between the teacher and parish, by a good example and by advice. The office of Superior School Inspector in connection with the consistories has already been mentioned. In the diocese of Hildesheim the consistory acts in conjunction with the General Vicar of the diocese in all matters pertaining to schools, though religious instruction can be given only by a teacher duly commissioned by the bishop. In the Catholic diocese of Osnabrück the control of the schools rests with the government authorities and the General Vicar, the latter having a predominant influence. The appointment of teachers, when not belonging to third parties, is made by the consistories, on nomination by the ephor in conjunction with the church committee, the government concurring.

3. *Statistics.*

The following statistical statement shows the condition of the schools in 1855; the operation of the law of 1856, however, has made material changes, though reliable data are not at hand respecting them. In a total population in that year of 1,806,891, there were 281,848 school children, averaging one in 6.42. The number of schools was 3,584, of teachers, 3,812—an increase of 131 teachers in ten years. Of these 417 are Catholic—286 in Osnabrück, and 131 in Hildesheim. The number of children to each teacher averages 74. Of the schools 1,227 number less than 50 pupils, 1,757 between 50 and 120, and 600 over 120—in 132 schools there are over even 200.

A large number of church parishes in the kingdom are very small, 437 sustaining but one or two teachers. In such cases the teacher usually acts also as clerk or sexton of the church. The whole number of teach-

ers filling those offices is 1,519. As regards salary 914 teachers receive but 80 thalers, 790 from 80 to 100, 307 from 100 to 120, 427 from 120 to 150, 1,874 from 150 thalers upwards. The total income of the schools being 558,800 thalers, the average money salary is 151. The state contributes 22,270 thalers in addition, an average increase of 23 thalers. The total appropriations of the state are about 116,000 thalers annually.

Factory schools are very rare. Schools for the poor are mostly confined to the large towns. Sunday-schools exist only in connection with some country summer schools of the Bremen district. Schools for adults, of which there are 450, with 6,800 pupils, have no connection with the public schools. The former garrison schools are now mostly blended with the schools attached to the Teachers' Seminaries. The so called "Intermediate Schools," which exist in many of the cities and of which there are now 187, as well as also the "Rector Schools," may be properly reckoned with the public schools, though they approach to the character of classical or special schools, inasmuch as they give instruction in foreign languages, &c. Their design is preparatory to a commercial life or the higher trades.

4. Inner Organization of the Schools.

The country schools in most cases are under the charge of a single teacher, the children of both sexes being gathered together and remaining together during all the hours of instruction. Where the means allow it, the school is divided into two sections according to the age of the children. A subdivision by sexes is less usual, occurring only in the larger cities where the several parochial schools are united into a central school with graded classes. In the city of Hanover both the boys' and girls' schools are subdivided by age into 5–9 classes. Half-day schools are especially numerous in Hildesheim, though rather as a matter of necessity. In Osnabrück and Aurich they are also favored wherever the schools are over-crowded.

The subjects required to be taught are the catechism and biblical history, reading, mental and written arithmetic, writing, easy composition, singing, and in some cases geography, elementary geometry, drawing, needle-work, and in Bentheim and Aurich the Dutch language are admissible. Needle-work is taught in many schools of Osnabrück, but in other provinces there are special schools for the purpose, often supported from the church funds but having no connection with the public schools. The hours of study are usually thirty in the week, between 6 A. M. (in winter, 8 A. M.) and 3 or 4 P. M. In graded schools the number may be reduced to 26, or 20, for the younger children. In summer, in the country schools, the time is generally reduced to 18 hours, or even 12—though the children are obliged to attend every day, with exceptions in favor of poor children in service and those engaged in tending flocks. School exercises begin and close with singing and prayer, or prayer alone. The first hour is occupied with religious instruction, (in Catholic schools, by the priest in the catechism,) followed by reading in the Bible and

hymn-book, arithmetic, and singing hymns and popular songs. The afternoon is devoted to writing and reading, with instruction in language, and in natural history and geography if included in the subjects taught. The text-books are the Bible, church hymn-book, church or national catechism, primer, reader (usually,) ciphering-book, biblical history (usually,) and sometimes a tune-book. The extent of instruction aimed at is a thorough committal to memory and reasonable understanding of the catechism, with Bible-texts and thirty or forty hymns, a knowledge of the books of the Bible, biblical history, and the main points in the history of the Reformation, reading fluently and intelligently, a legible handwriting and the ability to write from dictation, as well as to write letters, bills, receipts, &c., a knowledge of the application of the ground rules of arithmetic to whole numbers and fractions, and to sing the usual chorals without the teacher's assistance.

The "Monthly Record-Book" is required to contain a brief record of all that is done during the month. Absentee lists have also to be carefully kept, and the parents of such as are often absent are reported by the pastor to the authorities for punishment. Children should also regularly attend church instruction on Sunday. Examinations are usual only in some city schools.

5. *The Relations of Teachers.*

There is no want of aspirants to the teacher's office, coming usually from the lower orders—from the families of teachers, peasants, tradesmen, day laborers, and miners. Theological graduates are met with only in the "Rector Schools," (which have grown from the old "Latin Schools" and still often include Latin among the branches of study,) and occasionally in the intermediate burgher and female schools. The aspirants are obliged to support themselves until admitted to the Seminary, and after leaving it until engaged. The greater number, upon confirmation, enter into an apprenticeship with some capable teacher, from whom with the pastor they receive theoretical and practical instruction. They remain as assistants with their master or other teacher, in Stade and Aurich, till they obtain a permanent engagement; in the other provinces, until they enter a normal school. The number of such preparatory teachers is everywhere on the increase and the custom is attended with favorable results. In Hanover and Osnabrück, however, no one can be permanently located as teacher, nor as principal teacher in the other provinces, excepting Aurich, who has not attended a Seminary.

The requisites for admission to a Seminary are merely such as can be acquired at any respectable public school, with the addition of a good musical preparation. The required age is eighteen, or in the principal seminaries, twenty or over. Each of the ten normal schools is presided over by a theologically educated "Inspector," having under him at least one teacher with a seminary training, a candidate of divinity, and a so-called senior pupil, who also superintends the husbandry. The city teachers, or special assistants, are employed for music, writing, drawing,

&c. An elementary school, and in some cases also a graded school, is attached to each seminary as a school of practice for the pupils. The course of instruction for country teachers includes, besides the branches of the public school, instruction in method and in organ-playing; for city teachers are added drawing, physics, algebra, and biblical interpretation. Nothing is taught that the teachers will not find of immediate use in their future occupation and which they will not themselves teach. At the base of all discipline is the principle that the fear of God is the beginning of all wisdom. Instruction, text-books, medicines, beds, &c., are in nearly all these institutions furnished free of cost to the student. One half-thaler weekly is charged, except in the Hanover Seminary, for dinner and supper. The needy—about fifty in number—receive also their board free, and in addition 1,500 thalers annually.

The final examination is held by a committee consisting of the seminary teachers and the Inspector of the district, and in some cases a representative of the consistory. The certificate has reference not only to the instruction which the candidate has received but to his diligence and conduct. The pupils are seldom rejected upon examination, as they generally make good use of their advantages, and even the least efficient are considered sufficiently well fitted for the many small and poorly paying country schools, and for these the Institute for After-training is still open. For the farther improvement of teachers there exist almost everywhere Teachers' Associations, and, in many places, reading clubs and libraries. Also, by an old law of 1786, which has been often renewed, the pastors are required to hold regular monthly meetings of the teachers of their parish, and these are occasionally extended to include the clergy and teachers of a whole district. Some inspectors too are in the habit of calling conferences, from time to time, of all the teachers of their province.

The location of teachers occurs usually in the country schools at the age of nineteen or twenty; of city teachers, at the age of twenty-three—sometimes at a younger age, temporarily. It is done by the consistory upon nomination by the ephor, and a certificate is given of their action. Even in those cases (amounting in all to 1,480) where the appointment of the teacher does not thus rest with the government, the appointee can not enter upon his duties until satisfactory testimonials of his efficiency and good morals have been given to the authorities. The employment of assistants, "sine spe succedendi," and all measures for the provisional or temporary supply of schools, rest wholly with the consistories. Previous to his installation, which takes place in church in connection with divine service, the teacher must take the oath of allegiance and subscribe to the doctrines of the church, especially as interpreted in the church catechism. Suspension or dismissal from office can only follow a formal investigation, and the authorities can at the same time, if they think right, deprive him of a portion of his salary. If a teacher's mental abilities are suspected, he may be subjected to an examination, and his continuance in office depends upon the result.

To the teacher belongs all the income of his office as allowed him at the time of his engagement, except that in case of the location of a second teacher, he must transfer to him the fees received from any number of scholars over 120. If his income be thus so far diminished as to make it necessary in the opinion of the authorities, they may require that the deficiency be reimbursed to him. In addition to his income he should be furnished with the necessary room, furniture, and fuel. The amount of salary is now raised to 400 thalers in cities and boroughs, and to 250 thalers in the villages. Those who have served satisfactorily at least twenty-five years and have been poorly paid, receive an addition to their salary of fifty thalers annually, or such amount as the annual grant of 15,000 thalers will permit. The number of persons thus assisted, the last year, was 950. Titles or medals of honor may also be bestowed by way of distinction. Teachers are allowed to engage in subordinate occupations, not interfering with their special duties, such as book-keeping, parish clerkships, insurance agencies, &c., and in the country, orcharding, raising of bees, silk culture, turf cutting, &c. In 1848 teachers as well as the clergy were deprived of the right of exemption from state and parish taxes, but the hardships thus caused have since been removed by the remission of one-fourth of the land tax, the remainder forming a fund for the benefit of the more poorly paid teachers.

The pensions of teachers are not definitely regulated by law, but the amount is fixed by the authorities if it can not be satisfactorily agreed upon between the parties. It is rarely less than half of the salary, and with a longer period of service it may amount to two-thirds, or three-fourths, including also the use of the dwelling. They are paid from endowments attached to the school, or by the parish, or where the latter is unable or can not be compelled to provide the means, the state gives assistance to the amount of about 6,000 thalers annually. The expense for the support of a temporary assistant, in case of the teacher's sickness, &c., is provided for in a similar manner.

Funds for the assistance of the widows and orphans of teachers have arisen within a few years in all the provinces. The fund at Hanover, for example, is sustained by about 2,550 teachers, who contribute from ½ to 5 thalers annually, according to their salaries. The corresponding yearly pensions received are from 18½ to 25½ thalers. The state also appropriates 5,000 thalers annually for the same object, and an attempt is making to unite these local funds into one or two general ones. Widows receive one quarter's salary after the death of their husbands, and additional support from the convent and provincial funds as may be needed.

Female teachers are not found in the Protestant schools, except in the intermediate and higher institutions. There are but about fifteen employed in the Catholic schools.

6. *Higher Female Schools.*

Higher female schools are of recent establishment and are, in most cases, private boarding institutions, under the charge of directresses. So

far as they are public schools they are under the supervision of the city authorities, have a fixed corps of teachers under the direction of an Inspector, and since 1859 are subject to the superintendence of the consistories. They are usually divided into several classes, and besides the branches of the public school, give instruction in history, physics, botany and other natural sciences, history of literature, the English and French languages, various branches of needle-work, drawing, &c., for which the charges are high. Girls continue here till their fifteenth or sixteenth year. The Catholic institutions are conducted by the School Sisters, or Ursuline nuns, and are frequently attended by Protestant children.

7. *Institutions for the Blind, the Deaf and Dumb, Orphans, &c.*

The Asylum for the Blind, at Hanover, was established in 1845 for the benefit of children of all religions, the state contributing 24,000 thalers for the erection of buildings. The pupils remain in the institution from four to eight years, and are admitted between the ages of seven and sixteen, at a cost of 140 thalers for board and instruction, especially in music and the trades. Provision is made for the gratuitous support of 36 pupils. The present number of pupils is 75, including foreigners, while there are in the kingdom 120 blind persons capable of education.

The first Deaf and Dumb Asylum was founded at Hildesheim, in 1829, as a private institution. In 1839 it was enlarged and adopted by the state. It now numbers 100–120 pupils, from seven to fifteen years of age, in ten classes, with nine male and two female teachers. Provision is made for twenty free boarders and eighty day pupils. The institution is intended also for the training of teachers of the deaf and dumb. Another private institution exists at Emden, for twenty-five pupils, supported in part by the state. There are also schools for the deaf and dumb connected with the normal schools at Stade and Osnabrück, each for twenty-four pupils. Blind children, and the deaf and dumb, are not obliged to attend the public schools, but are permitted to do so.

The number of imbeciles in the kingdom is 1,194, of whom 201 are under fourteen years of age. It is probable that an asylum for their benefit will soon be established by the government. All these institutions, so far as they are public schools, are under the direction of the Department of the Interior and Medical Affairs.

Rescue Houses exist in several of the cities, modeled after the "Rauhe Haus" near Hamburg, and assisted by the state. They are endowed with corporate rights and are under the direction of "house fathers," who are also instructors of the children. The Pestalozzi Association was formed in 1846 for a similar purpose and has associate members in almost all parts of the kingdom. For eighteen thalers annually it provides homes for children in private families, and such as can not be thus properly cared for are placed in the Rescue House at Ricklingen. In 1856 it had there 28 children at an expense of 1–2,000 thalers, and 291 in families at an expense of 3–4,000 thalers.

Several Orphan Houses have been founded in different cities, partly by

private liberality, partly by the assistance of the churches and provincial governments. The oldest is that of Hanover, founded in 1643. Certain privileges are granted them, such as the right of printing singing-books, catechisms, almanacs, &c. Many have been changed from their original form and now provide for the children by contract with private families, under the supervision of the clergy, by which arrangement the expenses are greatly diminished. There is also an edict, since 1721, requiring the parishes to provide support for poor orphans under age.

Private establishments for the care of infants are to be met with in many of the larger cities.

III. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HESSE-CASSEL.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

Hesse-Cassel, or Electoral Hesse, forming a part of the great central elevated plateau of Germany, and holding the eighth rank among the States of the German Confederacy, consists of one large and five smaller separated districts, which form the following provinces:

Provinces.	Area, sq. m.	Population in 1858.	Capitals.	Population.
Lower Hesse and Schaumburg,	1,691	350,648	Cassel,	32,500
Upper Hesse,	764	118,950	Marburg,	8,000
Hanau,	496	121,582	Hanau,	15,000
Fulda and Schmalkeld,	697	135,506	Fulda,	14,000
Total,	3,648	726,686		

This country is a heap of moderately elevated ridges, stretching across each other in every variety of form and direction, and mostly covered with forests of beech, fir, oak, &c., which occupy about two-fifths of the whole territory and make it one of the most densely wooded countries of Europe. The soil is nowhere particularly fertile except in Hanau, where it is very productive, though the whole country is capable of a far higher degree of cultivation than the present. But a degree of indolence pervades the people in the rural districts, who are commonly dirty, squalid, and slovenly, and the villages are often composed of mere ruinous wooden hovels. The peasantry are principally hereditary tenants, whose chief occupation is agriculture, raising not only a surplus of grain, but producing large quantities of linen cloth and yarn for exportation. Pasturage is good, but cattle are not numerous; and excellent coal abounds though the people are prejudiced against its use.

The population embraces the following sects:—Reformed, or Calvinists, 867,567; Lutheran, 184,000; Evangelical, 100,000; Catholic, 106,955, one-half of whom belong to Fulda; Jews, 18,164. Both Calvinists and Lutherans are united for ecclesiastical government under three consistories, and the Catholics are under the Bishop of Fulda.

The government is a limited sovereignty, the Elector being assisted by a council of ministers and two chambers of representatives, which must be convoked at least once in three years. Each parish is presided over by a burgomaster, each district or circle by a special government official,

and each province by its governor. The inhabitants have suffered much from the rapacity and abuses of the rulers, and notwithstanding the various constitutional reforms that have been exacted from them by the people, the policy of the government still remains unchanged and the present constitution, promulgated in 1860, may be regarded as merely provisional. The annual revenue is about 5,100,000 thalers ($3,750,000,) while the expenses are somewhat less. The national debt is $10,000,000, of which three-fourths is for railroads. Military service is compulsory between the ages of twenty and thirty years, and the army numbers nominally 12,900 men, 5,000 of whom are on the reserve list.

GENERAL VIEW OF EDUCATION AND SCHOOLS.*

Education was formerly more backward than in any German State, but such is no longer the case. There are now about 1,800 national schools, nine gymnasiums, four normal schools, and various polytechnic, theological, military, and other special schools. There is also one university, at Marburg, which is remarkable as being the first that was founded after the Reformation and without Papal authority.

There is no general law for the regulation of all matters pertaining to education, nor even for the common schools, the repeated attempts which have been made in that direction since 1831 having failed through the disagreement of the government and chambers, as well as through the diversity of opinions held by the individual members of the chambers, some wishing to give the management of the schools exclusively to the State, others to make at least the common schools dependent upon the parishes, and still others preferring to place them under the direction of the church. A law was finally agreed upon for the regulation of the general organization of the schools, while all other matters were left to be arranged as might be found possible by means of special ordinances, State appropriations, &c. Though great dissimilarities exist in the different provinces, for various reasons, yet through the long continued action of the government for its improvement, the school system has gradually attained a tolerable degree of uniformity, and even the catholic province of Fulda has conformed to the general customs, and the more readily through the influence of Bishop Henry, of Bibra (1759–1788,) who did much for the thorough revision and right development of the school system.

The University and higher schools are purely State institutions, and hence the teachers have all the rights of State officials—can be removed only by judicial sentence, have a legal claim to pensions, which may amount to three-fourths of the previous salary, varying with length of service and amount of salary, and their widows also receive a State pension, equal to one-sixth of the teacher's salary, and another from the "State Widows' Association," which pensions are secured to the orphan children till of age. Such teachers in the common schools also as have

* The following account of the public school system is drawn from an article in Schmid's "*Encyklopädie*," by Dr. Bezzenberger, Chief School-Inspector at Cassel.

been located by the sovereign have similar rights, but others can be dismissed without action of a court, and their widows receive no other than a slight assistance from the quarterly contributions for the bereaved and needy, in the churches, and from the State in case of unusual desert and indigence. Recently, however, they have been allowed the benefit of the Widows' Association, and as some of them are in a most pitiable condition, an association has been formed among the teachers to provide for their most pressing wants. No special titles are conferred by law, no official dress is prescribed, and badges of honor, &c. are seldom bestowed in acknowledgment of merit. By a law of 1834, teachers possessed the rights of citizenship in their places of residence and were obliged to assume them in the larger towns, but since 1853 their rights and obligations as parish members depend upon their time of service in the parish, while they take no part in the elections and are subject to no other taxation than for the State dues. School property is free only from the soldiers' quartering tax. There is a peculiar regulation that public teachers are not obliged to act as guardians or trustees.

I. PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

1. *Organization.*

Though the common schools were originally a purely church institution, the teachers' office wholly ecclesiastical and to some extent joined with the pastor's office, and the administration of the schools dependent wholly upon the church, only traces of this ecclesiastical character now exist. The common schools are essentially secular, no distinction is made betwen the Protestant sects, and there are no special schools for other denominations. The children of such are obliged to attend the same schools with the others, being only excused from religious instruction, which is provided for them by their parents in other ways.

The administration of the school is essentially secular, though in some points not wholly so. The school inspectors, superintendents, and some other officials, are usually preachers, but nevertheless are classed among the secular officers. The churches, acting only through the higher school authorities, have a joint right of supervision over religious instruction—many of the teachers are in the service also of the church and draw thence a considerable portion of their income—and various peculiarities in the teachers' position arise from previous church rights. Like the pastor, he can not be pensioned for incapacity but is obliged to engage an assistant, for whose salary he is first responsible, then the parish in certain cases, and finally the State—though if he consent, he may be pensioned by the parish—and like the pastor too, he may marry without previous consent of the government. Service as teacher is ranked among the recommendations of a candidate for the pastoral office, and he receives due credit therefor. In the Catholic portions of the territory, however, the ecclesiastical element is more prevalent in fact, if not by law, as all the arrangements of the schools are first subject to the approval of the church authorities.

The common schools are parish schools only so far as the parish is obliged to support them where there do not exist special funds for the purpose—the State being only subsidiary. But as respects the teacher's salary and any desirable additions or improvements that would be attended with expense, the parish can contribute or refuse at its pleasure, the government being legally bound for any deficiency. The appointment of the teacher, and the organization and superintendence of the school are entirely a government matter, the local authorities having no right to anything without express permission, nor are the teachers permitted to make application directly to them. Still, at least in the cities, the burgomaster belongs to the school committee, and in some places he posseses the right of presentation to the teachership, but otherwise the parish has merely the right to express its wish respecting the appointment.

2. *School Authorities.*

The school authorities are the following:—1. The *School Committee*, consisting in the country of the district councilor (the highest district official) and the pastor, without any representative of the parish; and in the cities, of one or more of the parish authorities (usually the burgomaster,) one or more pastors, and occasionally the teacher. Upon the pastor falls the inspection of the school and the general management and oversight of instruction, all else devolving upon the committee in full, though the limits between the rights and duties of the two are not strictly drawn. In the larger city schools the inspector, or rector, has the immediate supervision of his school, while the pastor has influence only as member of the committee. But in the country the pastor is the next immediate superior to the teacher, while the councilor acts with the pastor in regard only to the external affairs of the school. Whoever acts as local inspector makes full report to the "chief school inspector." This official is not properly an independent school authority, but acts rather as a controlling and visiting officer betwen the school committee and the government. He cares for the strict execution of the ordinances and regulations, and the observance by teachers and inspectors, of their official instructions, observes the merits and defects of teachers, advises and reprimands, reforms improprieties or takes measures for their removal by report to the government and communication with the committee; in short, he has a quite wide field of action and might make himself the center of the school system. His efficiency is much modified, as well as that of the councilor, by the different relations of the schools in the country from those in the larger and the smaller cities. To each chief school inspector a fixed school district is allotted, for which he is the nearest organ of communication with the government in matters not belonging to the councilor or city school committees. The office is without salary and usually devolves upon the "metropolitan of the class" (dean or chief pastor of a smaller ecclesiastical district) or to some other suitable clergyman. Only in Cassel is the office an independent one and at present occupied by a layman. While empowered to obtain informa-

tion respecting the schools of the district at any time, they are required to visit and thoroughly inspect each one of them annually, in company with the councilor and local inspector, for which service they receive a mileage and *per diem* compensation. Full reports are made to the government according to prescribed formulas. School candidates are under their supervision, and they also preside at teachers' conferences, whenever such are held. 2. The *Provincial government*—through the "School Referee," who has, however, no independent personal authority over the schools, and is always a clergyman—is, in most cases, the highest authority in matters relating to what are strictly common schools. It locates, removes, pensions, and appoints substitutes for all teachers not appointed by the sovereign, and regulates generally the organization of the schools. Only in cases of complaint or when the question is regarding the school relations of the whole territory, does the Minister of the Interior interfere, whose referee in all educational matters where the sovereign rights are not affected, is neither clergyman nor schoolman, but simply a State official. For the real schools, however, and the better organized union schools of the cities, the Minister of the Interior is the supreme authority, who acts in part by general regulations and in part by special decisions.

This system of school supervision gives rise to many complaints respecting the multiplicity of school officials, the distribution of the management of the schools among different authorities, and the excessive amount of writing required, under which the schools must of necessity suffer, did not the zeal of the teachers compensate for deficiencies in other respects.

3. *School Attendance and Statistics.*

Attendance at school is obligatory from the sixth year to the close of the fourteenth, when confirmation occurs in the Protestant denominations. The teacher reports all absences, every two or four weeks, to the inspector, who admonishes the delinquents or reports them to the school committee who in turn, acting as public prosecutor, transfers the list with a motion for punishment to the court. A fine is inflicted upon the father of the delinquent of from one to fifteen silver groschen (2–30 cents) per day, or imprisonment in default of payment. These fines are appropriated to the benefit of the school or for writing material and books for poor children. Except in cases of physical infirmity, attendance at the common school can be escaped only by attendance at some other public or private school, which requires the superintendence of private and domestic instruction, also, by the common school authorities. Every child, wherever he may attend, must pay to the proper authorities the school charges that are usual in the parish; but these regulations both respecting attendance and school fees are not uniformly carried out and have many local exceptions.

By the census of 1858, the number of schools and teachers, exclusive of gymnasiums and private schools, was as follows:

	EVANGELICAL.		CATHOLIC.		JEWISH		TOTAL.	
	Schools.	Teach'a.	Schools.	Teach'a.	Schools.	Teach'a.	Schools.	Teach'a.
Country Parishes,	899	987	117	130	61	49	1,077	1,166
City do.	111	384	27	62	37	37	175	483
Total,.....	1,010	1,371	144	192	98	86	1,252	1,649

The total attendance was 105,512 evangelical, 17,376 catholic, and about 8,230 Jewish children, or nearly eighteen per cent. of the whole population. These schools are distributed into sixty inspection districts, differing very much in extent. School charges also differ greatly. In many country schools originally endowed by the churches and in wealthy districts where all school expenses are paid from the public treasury, no fees whatever are paid, while in others they amount to from ten silver groschen to one thaler (20–74 cents) annually; in the cities they vary much with the character of the schools. The total income from this source is estimated at 60,000 thalers ($45,000) annually. The revenue from the church services attached to 981 of the schools was estimated in 1846 at 28,669 thalers. The State appropriations for the last fiscal year were 72,000 thalers for teachers' salaries (including the real schools,) 14,330 thalers to the school treasuries, and 4,000 thalers to assist parishes in the erection of buildings, while the not inconsiderable cost of such buildings as are wholly obligatory upon the State, is charged to the State building account. A comparison of these amounts with the corresponding appropriations of other States in proportion to territory and population, will place Hesse Cassel among the very first. The amount of the appropriations of parishes, revenues for endowments, &c., can not be accurately estimated. Female teachers are rarely employed except in the Catholic city schools of Fulda, and only for instruction in needlework and similar feminine accomplishments.

4. *Internal Organization.*

The inner organization of the school is governed by no general law, but is mostly determined by local circumstances, wants, and means, and by the character of the school. The maximum number of hours required of the teacher is 26–32 weekly. The number of scholars varies greatly; there are single-classed schools with as many as 160 scholars, while in Fulda many parishes are without schools and the children are obliged to attend the schools of the neighboring towns, which are often filled to overflowing with even 200 or more scholars under a single teacher. The provincial governments in 1853 passed ordinances for the schools of their respective provinces, regulating the arrangement of the schools and of instruction, and giving official instructions to the teachers and to the local and higher inspectors, and upon these the elementary school system, for the present at least, rests; in the cities, however, they are inapplicable except in the schools for the poor, and each school has generally its own plan of instruction, &c., approved either by the

government or by the school committee and chief school inspector. But these ordinances are alike only in the provinces of Upper and Lower Hesse, those for Fulda being much the same, while those for Hanau differ very essentially and for the better. The former declare the main object of the common school to be "to lead the children, by instruction and discipline, into more perfect communion with the Savior, Jesus Christ, and to preserve them therein." The subjects of instruction are ranked as either necessary, or useful, while all others are declared pernicious. The first division embraces reading (confined principally to the text-books used in the following branches,) Bible history, the catechism, and singing. In the second division are placed penmanship, the expression of ideas in writing, ciphering, and where circumstances are especially favorable, geography with main reference to Germany and somewhat in connection with natural history, and the most important facts of church, mission, and profane history. The aim then in these schools is not fixed high. Of the twenty-six hours per week, sixteen may be given to reading, the study of the Bible, the catechism, and hymns, four to singing, three to arithmetic, and three to writing—while in the summer schools, where the time is more limited, thirteen hours may be given to reading and religious instruction, three to singing, and only two to writing and arithmetic during the week. This one-sided view of the object of the common school is avoided in the ordinance for Hanau which professes to aim at a healthy and thorough education of the people preparatory to civil as well as religious life, makes no distinction between necessary and useful branches, makes corresponding changes in the time given to the several studies, and gives at least the chance of a good common school. The city schools, being left more at liberty, are better adapted to meet the demands of the times and many of them are equal to the best in Germany. History, geography, mathematics, natural history, and drawing are introduced, and in a few instances gymnastics also, which within a few years have excited great interest. Private gymnastic institutions exist in the cities of Cassel and Hanau, while on the other hand gymnastics are excluded from the teachers' seminaries.

School diaries and records are required to be kept by all teachers and inspectors. There should be a public examination at the end of each half year, but in the country schools the visitation by the chief school inspector generally suffices, and in the cities a single examination is held at the close of the year. There is no special examination at the close of the course, even in the real schools, in which, however, certificates of dismission are usually given. There are from eight to ten weeks of vacation, at Easter, Michaelmas, Christmas, and Midsummer. The ordinances require the teachers to maintain discipline over the scholars both in the school and in church, on the street, and in all public places, but opinions and practices differ in respect to the authority of the teacher out of school. "All punishments prejudicial to health or destructive of self-respect, cursing, abuse, or the use of defamatory words referring to the

parents or relations of the child, or to his misfortunes or deformities, are wholly forbidden." The courts can not sentence children to punishment to be inflicted by the teacher, but may refer cases to him to be punished as he may deem fit. Trespasses in forests, fields, &c., are visited upon the parents.

Sunday schools for the secular instruction of adults, which were at one time very numerous, are no longer met with, the one now existing at Fulda being merely for religious instruction. But *trade schools* are established in nearly all the cities and in some of the larger towns, and in the larger cities are of two kinds, one for apprentices in carpentry, and the other for those in other business. There are never more than 4–6 hours of instruction per week, of which two may be given on Sunday. The course of study in the latter schools includes writing, arithmetic, German, geography, natural history, geometry as applied to the special wants of the trades, and dietetics. The carpenters' schools embrace geometry, drawing, designing, modeling, and other practical branches. There are annual examinations. Attendance is made compulsory except upon those already acquainted with the studies of the general department, fines being imposed upon the master for the non-attendance of his apprentices, and certificates are required of each year's attendance from the proper teachers. The instruction is given by teachers of other schools or by persons acquainted with the arts, and the expenses are defrayed by the entrance and dismissal fees, and sometimes small semi-annual tuition fees, paid by the apprentices, by a portion of the profits from the sales of blank contracts of apprenticeship and of the record books for traveling journeymen, by fines, interest of certain funds, and an appropriation of 2,000 thalers from the State. Each trade school is superintended by a committee consisting of the councilor, the burgomaster, a clergyman, the inspector of the public buildings, and some skillful artisans, who, as well as the teachers, are appointed by the provincial government as ultimate authority. The special school, where it exists, is diligently attended because its practical benefit is evident, but the general school finds almost insurmountable difficulties in the indifference and even hostility of masters and in the weariness and dissimilarity of character and acquirements on the part of the apprentices.

5. *Teachers.*

The rectorships attached to the schools in many of the smaller cities are to be noticed as peculiar, being the remains of the earlier Latin schools. The rector only has instruction of the first class, and also gives preparatory instruction for the gymnasium, but usually in private and with additional compensation. He is generally obliged to assist the pastor in his duties, on which account he is usually a candidate for the ministry and has received a university education, which is the case only with the principals of the more important schools in the large cities and with many of the real school teachers. He is required to undergo a special examination, conducted by a board of gymnasial teachers.

The mass of the teachers receive their training at the *Teachers' Seminaries*, and are many of them themselves the sons of teachers. There is no want of candidates for the office, owing to the limited demand for talent and energy in industrial and commercial pursuits, to the contented, settled disposition of the people, and the respect that is paid to the teacher, as well as to the small expense of support and education at the seminaries. There are three seminaries—two evangelical, at Homberg and Schlüchtern, and a Catholic one at Fulda—which are all purely State institutions, with essentially the same organization. The seminarists receive their fitting generally at various private preparatory schools, permitted for that purpose by government, and are required to be well grounded in the catechism, church doctrines, and Bible history, in the geography of Europe, history, arithmetic, correct reading, and the rules of grammar, with singing, and piano, violin, and organ playing. The requisite age at admission is sixteen years, and the course continues three years. In the extent of instruction and in their internal arrangement generally, the seminaries are very similar to those of Prussia. After a closing examination, the candidates are either commissioned for service in the public schools or engaged as tutors, family teachers, &c., and after two years are admitted to a second examination which determines their practical fitness and ability. Two years additional service capacitates them for a permanent settlement by the government. The number of pupils in the Fulda seminary is fixed at twenty-four, and in the other two amounts to about sixty. The whole expense to each does not exceed 25 thalers ($18.50) annually, while there are a number of stipendiaries and beneficiaries in each institution. The amount of State appropriation for their support is 18,820 thalers ($14,000.) The students bind themselves on entrance, to two years service in the common schools, at the end of which time the claim of the State for indemnification ceases. The Deaf and Dumb Institution at Homberg, and the Rescue House at Schlüchtern, are attached to the seminaries at those places. Instruction is given to the student to some extent in gardening, silk culture, and the management of bees.

There is also a seminary at Cassel for the training of Jewish teachers, which is sustained, as well as all the Jewish schools, by the Jews themselves, the State appropriating nothing, though it appoints the examining committee of the seminary and locates the teachers, and the schools as respects superintendence are in the same position as other schools. The interest taken by the Jews in their schools is very remarkable.

The permanent settlement of the teacher by the provincial governments occurs in regular course at the age of twenty-four. The church office, when attached to the teachership, is conferred by the ecclesiastical authorities but can not be withheld from the appointee of government except for satisfactory reasons. The Catholic teachers are located with the consent of the Episcopal chapter at Fulda. But few parishes possess the right of presentation, and still fewer private persons. The minimum salary of the common school teacher is fixed at 100 thalers ($74) which

is increased after five years' service to 150 thalers. In Cassel the salaries range from 250 to 400 thalers, including the use of dwelling, grounds, &c., which are very moderately estimated. These salaries consist of the income arising from local endowments or other like sources generally belonging to the school—of the rent of the teachers' dwellings attached to nearly all the schools in the country and smaller cities, usually reckoned at six thalers annually, and of the fields and gardens often going with them—of the tuition fees, where such are paid—of fuel from the State and parish forests—of contributions in many places required from the families, of grain, bread, eggs, &c., which are brought to the teacher—a share in the rights of common and pasturage—and appropriations from the "country school fund," whose income amounted at last reports to 17,449 thalers and has since been much enlarged, and is devoted to the increase of teachers' salaries. When the salary from these sources falls below the minimum and the parish fails to make up the deficiency, it is done by the State.

The most pressing needs of the schools of Hesse-Cassel are—a thorough revision of the school ordinances, establishing uniformity in the relations of schools to the parish, the church, and the State, avoiding the present one-sided mistaken religious tendency, and satisfying at the same time the love of the people for instruction, and the true interests of the church and State—a certain degree of capacity for school management and superintendence on the part of the pastors, who indeed by virtue of their position are the persons most suitable for the immediate inspection of schools in the country—and a deeper interest in schools on the part of the people themselves, which is now in a great measure prevented by the exclusion of the parish from the management of its own schools.

The literary efforts of the teachers of Hesse-Cassel have been inconsiderable, though this is no standard of their scientific ability or culture. None of the text-books in use are of home production. Several educational journals have appeared at different times—the earliest in 1808—but were all of short continuance. Since 1857, there has been published the "*Schulnachrichten für Kurhessen*," a modest sheet at small cost (10 silver groschen,) serving as a means of communication among all the teachers. Many teachers are active contributors to foreign journals.

II. PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION.

1. *The Real Schools.*

The real schools are all under the control of the local school committees and their support is obligatory first upon the cities where they are located, while the teachers are appointed by the sovereign and the State gives assistance where necessary. The teachers are not regarded as State officers and therefore have no claim for pensions or upon the Widows' Fund; still, when a teacher is incapable of further service and his salary, after deducting that of his assistant, is disproportionately small, a sufficient appropriation is required to be made from the school treasury,

and moreover the same pension is paid to their widows as to the widows of preachers. The present real schools have originated since 1830, but are founded in no general plan of organization and differ essentially according to special local wants and the different ideas prevalent at the date of their establishment. They have also been subjected to many changes, the most substantial of which was attempted in 1850 when it was desired to make of them a kind of inferior trade school giving a more or less thorough training preparatory to business and providing instruction in the modern languages to those desiring it. But this arrangement has been found almost incapable of execution. The development of these schools has been greatly influenced by the fact that none of the cities, excepting Cassel, is able to maintain a completely organized institution of the kind, and that the gymnasiums fully satisfy the want of a higher education; the guild system, also, still existing in Hesse-Cassel, with its established standard of ages for apprentices, journeymen, and masters, prevents school attendance beyond the fourteenth year, and moreover the completion of the real course is rewarded with no special privileges. These schools are supported in part by the funds originally belonging to the Latin schools, in part by the tuition fees, and by appropriations from the city and the State, The State appropriation is estimated at 7,800 thalers. The tuition varies in different places form 10 to 32 thalers, and the salaries also vary very much—from 300 to 1,000 thalers. The schools of the provincial capitals are largely attended in proportion to the number of inhabitants; besides these there are schools at Eschwege and Schmalkeld, with pro-gymnasiums attached. The gymnasium at Rinteln has two real classes and in some cities the rector schools have a single real class connected with them. Those at Cassel and Hanau are the most complete, those at Eschwege and Fulda are nearly equal to them, while the rest are inferior. The school at Hanau is the oldest, having been first founded as a "burgher and real school" in 1818, but seems not to have been superior to an ordinary burgher school until after its thorough reorganization in 1839. It then consisted of four elementary classes for boys from six to ten years old, three middle classes, and the special real school with three classes, closing at the age of sixteen. In 1847 it numbered 390 pupils, but in 1851 its organization was changed, with a less number of classes, a restricted course of study, a smaller number of teachers, and a diminished popularity. The establishment of the school at Cassel commenced a new era in the development of its educational system, needing now but a higher public female school to supply all the wants of the population. It was opened in 1843 with nine classes and 495 pupils, with a library, natural history collections, &c. It has been managed with success, and notwithstanding some alterations that were, in the opinion of very many, injudicious, it in 1855 numbered 449 pupils in eight regular classes.

The general course of studies includes—in all the eight classes, religion (3–4 hours weekly,) German (3–10 hours,) arithmetic (4 hours,) singing (2 hours,) writing, in classes III. to VII., (2 hours,) geography, in

classes II. to VI. (2 hours,) French, in I. to V. (4–8 hours,) drawing and gymnastics, in I. to IV. (2–4 hours each,) geometry, in I. to III. (4 hours,) history and natural history, in I. and II., (2 hours each.) The first class is in two divisions, technical and mercantile. To the last is given instruction in English, mercantile arithmetic, book-keeping, correspondence, &c.—to the other, stereometry, chemistry, &c., and technical drawing. This division, however, is nōt made in all the schools, and in regard to the whole course, each school has its peculiarities. In many respects they are more nearly allied to the gymnasiums than to the common schools, between which classes they so fluctuate that it is desirable that there were more fixed and uniform regulations controlling them.

The teachers have generally passed one year at the university, and except in special cases are obliged to undergo an examination, in such departments as they may select, before a committee appointed for the purpose. They usually serve a year as "practitioners" previous to final settlement.

2. *Higher Female Schools.*

There exists but one—at Hanau—its revenues and expenses in charge of the city, its general arrangement, teachers, &c., under the same relation to the State authorities as in the other public schools. It was first opened as a general female school, but in 1842 was divided into two district schools, a burgher and a higher female school, the latter with eight annual classes and 297 pupils. Since 1850 the classes have become reduced to six, and the number of pupils has also diminished. It is designed for girls of the middle and higher classes, the course extending from the sixth year till confirmation, and embracing religion, German, French, history, geography, natural history, singing, arithmetic, writing, drawing, and needlework. Private schools are depended upon for more advanced instruction.

3. *Private Schools.*

The number of *private schools* is relatively small, their places being gradually supplied by public institutions. Their number is somewhat restricted by the ordinance placing both day and boarding schools under the supervision of the school authorities, and requiring teachers so engaged, with certain exceptions, to obtain the permission of the provincial government and to undergo an examination by a suitable committee. Family teachers and tutors are under no special supervision, though it has been decided that when the children of more that two families are instructed together, it constitutes a private school. Many of the regulations, however, are not very strictly observed.

III. THE GYMNASIUMS.

Respecting this branch of the school system there is no special law, but all the gymnasiums are State institutions, directed and supported by the State, and private schools can not carry their preparatory instruction beyond fitness for the fourth class. Each has its own endowment funds,

tuition fees, and appropriations from the State, the latter amounting to 89,090 thalers ($39,000.) The tuition fees vary in the different gymnasia from four to sixteen thalers in the lowest class, and from twelve to twenty-four thalers in the highest. The expense to the student is in many cases diminished by stipends, &c. They may be considered as sectarian in character, the gymnasium at Fulda, however, being more strictly catholic than the others are evangelical.

The gymnasiums are immediately under the Minister of the Interior as superintending authority, whose referee for educational and school matters is an officer of the government, upon whose scientific training, interest in and acquaintance with the school system, and impartiality, the prosperity of the schools depends. The immediate management of each institution, however, rests with its director.

There are six institutions of this character, at Cassel, Fulda, Hanau, Hersfeld, Marburg, and Rinteln, with an annual attendance during the last ten years ranging from 750 to 1,200; the total number of graduates during that time was 1,194. There are also three pro-gymnasiums at Eschwege, Schmalkeld, and Schlüchtern, with three classes corresponding to the three lower classes of the gymnasium and having the same studies. Their organization dates from 1833 and they are very much like the similar establishments of northern Germany generally and those of Prussia especially, possessing both their excellencies and defects. They differ but little among themselves, the course of study continues nine years, from the age of nine to eighteen, and the scholars are divided into six classes, each of the three higher classes having a two years course. The requisites for admission are ability to read and write well in both German and Roman character, familiarity with the four rules of arithmetic, and a knowledge of Biblical history. A purely department system of teaching prevails. The number of hours of instruction weekly is 31 in the three higher classes, 30 in the fourth, and 28–29 in the two lower—four hours in the forenoon and two in the afternoon, Wednesday and Saturday afternoons being free, as in all schools. All the studies are obligatory, with the exception of singing and drawing in the four higher classes, and Hebrew. They are as follows:—German, 3–4 hours; Latin, 8–10 hours; Greek, in the four higher classes, 6 hours; French, in the three higher classes, 2 hours; Hebrew, in the highest class, 2 hours; religion, 2 hours; history, except the lowest class, 2 hours; geography and natural history, 2–4 hours; mathematics, 4 hours; writing, in the three lowest classes, 2 hours; gymnastics, 2 hours; singing, 1–2 hours; drawing, 2 hours. Religious services in school are limited to a single hour's exercises at the end of the week, though instruction is begun daily in each class with prayer, under the restriction that unordained teachers can make use only of the Lord's prayer. The attendance of the scholars at church is generally not controlled. The time of both scholars and teachers is very fully occupied, as in the three higher classes from four to five hours daily are spent in recitation, translation, and other exercises, while each of the teachers has to

correct on the average three compositions weekly. Still many teachers give private instruction to scholars of their gymnasium, with the consent of the ministry. The private study and occupations of the students receive no particular supervision. Every gymnasium has its library for the students, sustained by the general school fund and under the care of one of the teachers. The classification and ranking of the scholars is determined at the close af each year upon the basis of the teachers' lists of scholarship, diligence, and conduct. The first has the most weight, and Greek, Latin, German, mathematics, and history have more influence upon the decision than the other departments.

Discipline extends to the conduct of the scholars both in and out of school, but no rigorous strictness is attempted and therefore discipline is easily maintained. As the students advance the need of punishment diminishes. Imprisonment and expulsion can be inflicted only by the conference of teachers. The events of each day are recorded in the class-books, with the tasks of the different hours, the marks of credit and demerit, absences, &c. Prizes, public honors, &c., are not conferred, with the exception of the Richter medal to deserving graduates of the Cassel gymnasium.

A public examination is held at the close of the school year, before Easter, and a private one at the end of the summer term, at both of which certificates are given to all the students. Certificates are also given four times in the term to the members of the two lower classes, and twice in the term to the next higher class. The completion of the course secures no other privileges than one year of active military service in place of three, as otherwise prescribed, and admittance to the university. By far the most of the graduates devote themselves to the different branches of the State service.

The corps of instructors in all the gymnasiums includes 48 teachers (with the six directors) and ten assistants, besides teachers who have been commissioned to supply temporary wants, and "practitioners," i. e. candidates for the teachers' office, who having finished their university studies and passed an examination are now spending a year on trial. This examination is made by a special committee at Marburg, and it is required that the candidate shall evidence a scientific training either in a philological and historical or in a mathematical and physical direction. At the close of the probationary year a practical examination is held, relating chiefly to the pedagogical abilities of the applicant, and conducted by three directors appointed for the purpose and forming the "Higher School Committee for the affairs of the gymnasiums." They have also to advise upon matters relating to the gymnasiums generally and to report regarding them to the ministry, and they therefore form in a certain degree a special council upon gymnasial matters, attached to the ministry.

The final location of the teacher does not occur on the average earlier than the thirtieth year of his age. It is made by the sovereign, on motion of the ministry, and the directors have very little to do with the choice of their teachers. The salaries are moderate. The directors re-

ceive from 800 to 1,200 thalers, the other principal teachers from 500 to 800 thalers, and the assistants from 300 to 400 thalers. There is no increase of salary with age, nor addition in case of want, nor immunities of any kind. It is not surprising therefore that many of the younger teachers accept positions in other States, and the more credit is due the settled teachers for their ability and self-sacrificing faithfulness.

IV. ORPHAN HOUSES; RESCUE INSTITUTIONS, ETC.

Among the many ordinances which show the care of the State for the destitute is one that provides for every poor orphan child—and the same holds good for the poor children of imprisoned criminals—that the expense of his instruction should be borne equally by the State, the parish, and the church, while many amercements and fines that would otherwise go into the treasury are applied to the reformed orphan house at Cassel. This is the oldest institution of the kind in the province, having been founded in 1690, and is now well endowed and provided with new and spacious buildings, grounds, &c. It provides for about 300 children, of whom the boys only are in the institution buildings, the girls being cared for in private families. The children are retained until confirmation, when the boys are apprenticed and the girls receive a gift of three thalers, a Bible, and a hymn-book. Two principal teachers and two assistants are engaged in instruction, which reaches the grade of a somewhat superior common school. The children are also trained in the various duties of a house and garden, in basket making, straw braiding, &c., and there is a printing office attached to the establishment which adds considerably to its income. It is controlled by a committee, who are immediately under the ministry of the Interior, while other orphan houses are under the provincial governments. The Lutheran orphan house at Cassel was founded in 1762, and now provides for forty children, all within the building, and cared for substantially as in the Reformed institution. Pupils that have left the house are also supported during their apprenticeship. A Jewish orphan house was founded at Cassel in 1856, with fourteen children who receive instruction in the parish school. Much attention is paid to instruction in labor. It is proposed to increase materially its resources as well as extend its accommodations and aims. There is also an orphan house at Hanau with a very considerable income which is devoted to the support of orphans, and especially, of morally neglected children. The system of institutional training is strongly adhered to and only such children as would have a dangerous influence upon others, are removed and placed in the rescue houses at the expense of the institution. It numbers about seventy children, with four teachers, a printing press and book-store with special privileges, &c. Of the orphan house at Marburg and the Catholic institution at Fulda there is little to be said.

There are three *rescue houses*, the oldest of which was established in Cassel in 1834 by the "Society for the Improvement of the Moral and Physical condition of the Poor" of the city of Cassel. It is intended only for boys, and the institution maintains an intercourse and interest

in its pupils after they have left it, and through life—with very beneficial results. The one at Renshaus was opened in 1844, and has eight buildings, with land, &c., about 120 children, a book printing-office, a book-bindery, &c. The expenses of each child are from 50 to 60 thalers. The third is at Raith, near Schlüchtern, with about forty children. It is very simply but excellently conducted. All these institutions make reports at stated times.

The *Deaf and Dumb Institution* at Homberg was established in 1838, is under the control of the director of the Teachers' Seminary and now numbers twenty-six pupils. There are two teachers with salaries of 500 thalers each, and also a female teacher. The State appropriation amounts to 2,800 thalers, and all poor pupils are instructed free of expense. Arrangements are making to so extend the establishment as to be able to educate all the deaf and dumb children of the duchy.

There is as yet no institution for the blind. An establishment has been commenced for the training of imbecile children. Infant schools, or rather guardian institutions, exist only in the larger cities, where there are also special hospitals for children. These are all supported principally by charitable contributions and appropriations from the parishes. Great liberality is everywhere manifested for the good of the children of the poor, and their education is considered of no less importance than that of the more wealthy. In Cassel, for example, with a population of 32,500, there are nine schools for the poor, with 1,700 children, who receive not only free instruction, but also for the most part, books, writing and drawing materials, and linen and thread for their work, besides assistance in many other forms.

IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE DUCHY OF BRUNSWICK.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

The Duchy of Brunswick, situated in north-western Germany, at ranking twelfth among the States of the Confederacy, consists of three larger and six smaller distinct portions, comprising an area of 1,525 sq. m., and divided politically into the circles, or districts, of Brunswick, Wolfenbüttel, Helmstadt, Gandersheim, Holzminden and Blankenburg. Its capital is Brunswick, with a population of 42,209. The entire population in 1863 was 281,708, of whom 276,922 were Lutherans, 998 Reformed, 2,633 Catholics, 1,061 Jews, and 99 of other sects. The government is a limited monarchy, the Duke being head of the State, restricted by the legislature, which is composed of the upper and lower chambers, partly hereditary and partly elective, and meeting every three years. The revenues for 1861–3 amounted to $8,687,420—public debt $8,825,896. Total army force during peace 2,476, in time of war 5,359.—(The State of Rhode Island has an area of 1,306 sq. m.,—population in 1860, 174,620 —ordinary revenue in 1863 $334,115, military account and receipts $3,222,991—number of soldiers furnished, up to Dec., 1863, 14,997 three years' men, and 5,216 for shorter periods. Three-sevenths of the territory is under cultivation.)

The surface of the duchy is mostly mountainous, but with level tracts of considerable extent. Agriculture is the chief pursuit, and is carried on with intelligence and energy, nearly one-half of the territory being under cultivation, while one-third is in forest and many are employed in the cutting and preparation of timber. Great attention is also paid to the rearing of cattle, especially of sheep. The most striking characteristics of the people are personal courage and an open, unsuspecting nature; they are considered to be the best situated of all the Germans in the point of comfort and village economy, and on the whole this little State is one of the best managed in Europe, in every department of administration.*

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOOL LEGISLATION.

While yet darkness brooded over northern Germany, and only in the cloisters and rising cities was there a gleam of light to give promise of the coming day, Gandersheim gained to Brunswick its first literary fame as the residence of the poetess Roswitha, the nun; and as early as in the twelfth century Gerold became widely known as rector of the school at

* J. H. C. Schmidt, in Schmid's "Encyclopädie."

St. Blaize. The progress of enlightenment, which was at all times evident within the territory of the present duchy, the weight of evidence shows to have been independent of foreign aid; in later periods it was especially marked in the city of Brunswick, owing in a great degree to the position which the capital early assumed in the Hanseatic League. But the cloister schools ceased to give satisfaction to the citizens. They therefore petitioned Pope John XXIII., and obtained the privilege of founding the two schools of St. Martin and St. Catherine. The establishment of these schools gave rise to angry contentions between the ecclesiastics and the civilians. The former were unwilling to surrender so fertile a source of advantage as instruction had hitherto been to them; but the latter had become well cognizant that the immediate future would require of the citizens what the cloister schools neither could nor would supply. Finally, Duke Bernhard interfered and reconciled the parties. The articles of agreement, made in 1420, specified that in these schools instruction should be given to children and youth in the languages (grammaticalia) and principal arts. Mention is also made of "writing schools," in which nothing was to be taught but to write, and to read the alphabet and German books and manuscript. From these germs the school system of the city was now rapidly developed so that many foreign cities took pattern therefrom, and Bugenhagen, in 1528, was enabled to say, "Here, in Brunswick, it is considered, by the Honorable Council and by the entire community, necessary, above all things, to maintain good schools, and for that end to pay for the service of faithful and honest masters and assistants." Of the other sources of civilization, prior to the Reformation, there may be mentioned the renowned "Schulpforta," an institution for instruction, founded in 1137 by the monks of the Abbey of Walkenried.

With the Reformation, the broad light of day at last broke upon Brunswick as respects education and enlightenment. In 1528, Bugenhagen accomplished the introduction of Protestantism into the capital. We have already remarked in what condition he found the schools. He now gave them such an organization as Luther, in reply to Melancthon, had outlined in his "Unterricht der Visitatoren." The reformation was extended by Duke Julius through the entire territory, and immediately thereafter, in 1569, there appeared a church ordinance, which also included regulations for the schools, according throughout with the views of Luther and Bugenhagen, and the root-stock of the school system that to-day exists in Brunswick. This ordinance provided that wherever there had hitherto been sacristies there should now be German schools established in connection with them. From this germ the "Public School" has developed itself in accordance with the wants of the times. Reading, writing, the catechism, and sacred music were for a long time the standard subjects of instruction, and the teachers were required to be "persons fitted for the office, who had undergone a previous examination." Duke Augustus added an element of great strength to the system, in 1644, by establishing a consistory, before which all matters relating to churches

and schools should be brought, and by whom both churches and schools should be frequently visited. He also issued, in 1651, an ordinance containing strict regulations respecting the instruction of youth, which was printed at Wolfenbüttel, in 1657. Yet all these measures were not effectual in bringing into operation a system of country schools; it was especially the schools of the cities that were undergoing gradual development. Finally, Charles I., young and energetic, gained the throne and showed his desire and ability to effect an improvement in the country schools, by the "Ordinance respecting Schools in the Country," of Sept., 1753, in which, after an admirable preamble, there follow five chapters upon "Scholars," "Schoolmasters," "Preachers," "their Superintendents," and "the Magistracy." And in addition to this, that there might be no want of teachers, he founded in Oct., 1753, a Teachers' Seminary at Wolfenbüttel.

It is evident therefore that the Brunswick public school is a daughter of the church; and legislation had never conceived of any other relation. But Charles William Ferdinand, (1780–1806,) influenced by the spirit of the times, and, perhaps, by the example of Prussia, favored other views. The schools should be separated from the church and placed under a "School Directory," consisting of Campe, Trapp and Sture. This plan of the Duke was frustrated, however, by the opposition of the consistory and chambers. Omitting the period during which the country and its schools groaned under French despotism, we pass immediately to an account of their present condition, premising only that the existing system rests mainly—first, upon the ordinance of 1753, so far as not superseded by subsequent laws;—secondly, upon the law of April, 1840, in relation to school attendance and school order in the country parishes;—thirdly, upon the proclamation of the consistory of Nov., 1840, which, together with the first-mentioned law, provided for the internal regulations of the schools;—and fourthly, upon the parish school law of Dec., 1851, which regulated the external relations of the schools.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The Public Schools include both the Evangelical-Lutheran parish schools in city and country, and all institutions related to them. For Catholic churches and schools, the State does nothing directly; they belong to the diocese of the Bishop of Hildesheim. The Jews also provide liberally for their own schools, which are all purely private institutions. Every Evangelical parish is obliged to have a parish school, which is open to children of all denominations, and is supported by the parish in which it is situated. If the requisite amount can not be raised from the tuition fees, (which vary in the cities and villages, but in the country are one thaler (74 cents) annually per child, of whatever age,) the deficiency is contributed from the parish treasury, as well as what is required for the tuition of the children of the poor. The teacher's salary is defrayed from the same source. Many parishes receive assistance from the "cloister and education fund," which originated from the estates of the con-

vents and religious foundations secularized at the time of the Reformation, and set apart for the support of the clergy and institutions of instruction.

There are in the country parishes (in 1855) 406 teacherships, with a total income of 78,118 thalers, ($57,800,) exclusive of house-rent furnished free to the teachers. Of this amount, 41,571 th. are derived from the school endowments, (including lands, invested funds, perquisites, &c.) —29,832 th. tuition fees—2,908 th. appropriated by the parishes—and 3,805 th. from the cloister and education fund. The number of scholars in 1855 was 33,022. The usual amount of salary in districts containing 250 inhabitants and over, is at least 150 th., ($111)—in smaller districts, at least 140 th., (previous to February of the present year, 120 th.) Two-fifths of the salaries range from 120 th. to 150 th., another two-fifths from 150 th. to 250 th. 65 teachers receive 250-350 th., and ten receive 350–500 th. In the twelve cities and three boroughs there are 36 schools with 188 male and 42 female teachers, who receive a total salary of 42,758 th., ($31,650,) to which the tuition fees contribute 18,839 th., the cloister and education fund 9,600 th., and the city and other treasuries the remainder. The number of scholars is 11,288. The usual salary of a city teacher is 150 th., or 175 th. without house-rent. The city teachers are regularly graduated, those of the city of Brunswick being divided into six classes, the five higher classes consisting of five teachers each, the salaries being 200, 250, 300, 350, 400, and 450 th. respectively. Thirty thalers are added in commutation of house-rent. Teachers are allowed to engage in other occupations with the consent of the consistory.

Children enter school on completing the fifth year, at Easter or Michaelmas, and remain until confirmation, at the age of fourteen years. The vacations established by law are one of a week at Christmas, a week at Easter, and three days at Ascension day. There are also five weeks of vacation during the summer term, which are distributed during harvest and autumn according to the season. Wednesday and Saturday afternoons are also free.

School Superintendence.—There is required to be a committee in connection with every school, consisting in the country parishes of the chairman and one member of the church committee, the chief official of the parish, and a member of the parish council, who must all be of the same sect. The teacher of the school (the oldest where there are several) should attend the meetings of the committee as advising member, and may be constituted a voting member by the consistory. In the cities the committee consists of the chief magistrate, the highest ecclesiastic, a member of the city council and of the church association, (formed of the church committees of the different parishes,) or of the church committee if there be but a single parish, the school director, and wherever the internal arrangement of any school is concerned, the head teacher of that school. This school committee is a creation of the law of Dec., 1851, and has already effected many beneficial results. Besides paying general at-

tention to the best interests of the school, it devolves upon them to transact all its outside business; they have the management of the school property, under the direction of the consistory; they prepare the annual estimate of income and expenses, effect the appropriation by the parish court of the items of the estimate, and have control of the school treasury accounts, inasmuch as the accounts are presented first of all to them for revision. It is their duty to secure the execution of the laws and regulations, to reconcile the differences of teachers and parents, to confer with the authorities respecting the admission of scholars not entitled to it, and the establishment of the rates of tuition, to decide respecting the punishment of gross offenses, or the final expulsion of scholars, to conduct school ceremonies, to be present at public examinations, to make suggestions to the school inspector or the consistory respecting instruction and all other school matters, and at their request to make reports and give advice.

The immediate superintendent of every country school is the local preacher. The city and burgher schools are generally under a director appointed by the ministry on the nomination of the consistory. The other schools of the duchy are distributed into twenty-eight inspection districts, each under a school inspector appointed in the same way, usually an ordained minister, who receives a suitable compensation from the cloister fund. These inspectors, as well as the directors, have the especial control of the internal management of the schools, and are also particularly required to call meetings of the pastors and teachers of their districts. Finally, the consistory at Wolfenbüttel is at the head of the school government. Since 1851 there has also been established at the same place a consistorial council, to which school matters should be referred. The whole course of instruction in the parish schools is fixed by this consistory, and they have also the decision respecting the location, transference, dismissal, and pensioning of teachers, the imposing bonds upon newly appointed teachers, and the care of all matters relating to the general supervision of the schools.

Internal Arrangement of the Schools.—In the earlier times, the organization of the school was marked by very decided characteristics, to which the university of Helmstedt especially contributed. Later, the peculiar geographical position of the territory brought into action numerous external influences, so that the specific character of the schools became gradually less marked. The philanthropic notions that flowed in, were not however powerful enough to remove altogether the old, solid foundation, and though the public schools could not wholly exclude the prevalent pedagogical ideas of modern times, yet they did not so far accept them as to thereby wholly lose their former features. This conservative element may be ascribed, doubtless, to the close connection between the schools and the church. The influence which the more enlightened pedagogical ideas of modern times have exerted upon the schools, is due to the wisdom of Junker and of Bischof. The school system of Brunswick

is, in truth, rooted in ecclesiastical soil, but in later years it inclines decidedly towards a more rational appreciation of the spirit of Christianity.

The city schools have, as circumstances may require, male and female departments, and also schools in which tuition is free. The number of the classes varies. As an example of classification and of the course of study, we give a brief description of the schools of Schöningen, a city of 3,900 inhabitants. The male and female schools are each divided into four classes, with an elementary class which includes all pupils between the ages of six and ten. This elementary class, numbering 124 pupils, receives 24 hours weekly instruction in religion, reading and writing, ciphering, exercises in spelling and grammar, lessons in thinking and needle-work. In the male department, with 215 pupils, the lower class of 62 boys is taught, 24 hours weekly, in religion, German, ciphering, singing and thinking—while the course for the highest class of 38 pupils requires 32 hours, and is extended to include religion, Bible reading, religious history, German, history, geography, physical science, abstract arithmetic, ciphering, writing, singing and drawing. Instruction is given to the second and third classes in geometry and natural history. In the female department, numbering 232 pupils, the lowest class (78 pupils) receives 26 hours instruction in religion, German, ciphering, writing, familiar science, singing and needle-work—the higher class (41 pupils, 31 hours,) the same subjects as the higher class in the male department, with the exception of religious history and abstract arithmetic, and the addition of needle-work. There are also "associate classes," so-called, attached to the higher class, for instruction in the male school in Latin, French, German, arithmetic and geography, and in the female school in German, mythology, religious history and needle-work. In the free school, 28 hours are given to religion, Bible reading, German, ciphering, familiar science, writing, singing and needle-work—in the two lower divisions, religion, Bible history, exercises in thinking, ciphering, reading and writing. All city schools are organized in a similar manner.

Village schools, on the other hand, are always divided into three classes; where there are two teachers, the first teacher has charge of the upper class, the second teacher the two lower. Formerly, in places of sufficient population for two schools, the sexes were separated; but this arrangement is now wholly obsolete. The number of hours given to instruction are as follows: in schools with a single teacher and less than 60 scholars, during the winter term and first summer quarter, 26 hours, and in the second summer quarter, 22 hours. In these schools the exercises are the most difficult, as all the classes are under instruction and care at the same time. Where there are between 60 and 160 scholars, the hours are 32, 28 and 24 in the winter term and two summer quarters respectively—in schools of more than 160 scholars but still under one teacher, 36, 36 and 32. In these schools only the higher and two lower classes are present in turn. In schools under two teachers, the upper class is taught 28, 26 and 22 hours, the middle class 16, 15 and 12 hours,

and the lower class 12, 11 and 10 hours. The studies are as follows: in the lower class, instruction in intuition, "which gives a scientific preparation and foundation for subsequent instruction in language and religion, as well as in familiar science;" reading, as far as possible, by the phonic (lautir) method; writing, figure drawing, numbers, and the rudiments of arithmetic; in the middle class, elementary instruction in religion, founded upon Bible stories, exercises in thinking and expression, familiar science, reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic and singing; in the upper class, religious instruction, with the aid of the catechism, Bible knowledge, religious history, language, familiar science, knowledge of their native land, reading, mental and written arithmetic, writing and singing. The text-books used are very various.

Teachers.—The teachers receive their training principally at the Seminaries of Wolfenbüttel and Brunswick, and the preparatory schools attached to them. The institution at Wolfenbüttel has a director, inspector, five assistants, and 18 "seminarists"—at Brunswick, a director, three assistants, and 10 seminarists. The directors are the superintendents of the city schools, in which also the seminarists are engaged as teachers. The latter do not receive instruction, properly speaking, in the seminary, but are called together in conference from time to time by the director. They receive their lodging, board, fuel, lights, medical attendeance, &c., free, and also annual stipends of 85 thalers at Brunswick, and of 24–60 thalers at Wolfenbüttel. In the preparatory school at the latter place there are 45 "Preparandists," who are instructed by the teachers of the seminary through a three years' course. The plan of study includes religion, Bible instruction, catechetical exercises, geography, history, German, arithmetic, natural history, mathematics, science of education and instruction, penmanship, theory of music, singing, playing on the violin, (formerly the organ,) drawing and horticulture. The so-called "aspirants" receive their fitting for the preparatory school at the real school, i. e., in the two higher classes of the Wolfenbüttel burgher school. Stipends are annually apportioned to both aspirants and preparandists; still the expense of preparation is very high, and within late years the number of students has greatly diminished. In the Harz-town of Blankenburg there is also a small preparatory school attached to the gymnasium, with four students.

Professional Improvement of Teachers.—The most effectual incitement to farther improvement lies in the consciousness of belonging to the corps of Brunswick teachers, with whom a living, energetic spirit has always been a distinguishing trait. Additional motive is found in the "account book," which, since 1854, every teacher has been obliged to keep, making careful entry every month of all that has been studied in the school and committed to memory by the scholars. This book accompanies the report made by the teachers at Easter to the higher authorities, and even without this would be a powerful incentive. The official conferences of teachers, recommended by the inspectors, and usually held at Easter and

Michælmas, also prove a valuable means of improvement. The inspector selects certain topics, sufficiently long before holding the meeting, and appoints teachers to report upon them. These teachers express their views before the conference, which are then freely discussed under the lead of the inspector, and the minutes of the meeting are submitted to the examination of the higher authorities. The conference is always opened and closed with singing and prayer; to defray the expenses, the teachers receive a small compensation from the school money. Besides these, however, there are almost everywhere, in city and country, voluntary conferences, meeting usually every month and organized like the official ones; the most important one is that of the city teachers of Brunswick, who have also gathered a considerable library. Teachers' reading societies are usually connected with the conferences, but also exist here and there independently. The most influential institution, however, for the instruction and closer union of teachers, is the "General Teachers' Association," organized in 1849, and meeting semi-annually at Easter and Michælmas. It is managed by a committee of five members, and its endeavor is to form small conference districts throughout the country, of which the Association is at once the root and the fruit.

Examination for the office of public school teacher is made before a committee, composed of a member of the consistory, a seminary director, and the necessary department professors. The appointment of the teacher is made by the government on nomination of the consistory, preceded by the communication of the nomination to the committee of the parish. If objections are made, they are duly referred. Of the teacherships, 278 are in the gift of the government, 65 belong to preachers and parishes, 22 to preachers alone, 5 to parishes alone, and 41 to private persons. The suspension of a teacher, as a disciplinary measure, deprives him of office and not of salary, but he must bear the expense of a substitute. A teacher can also be removed by the government to a place of punishment, on motion of the consistory, but his salary can not be reduced beyond one-tenth at the most. Fines may be imposed by the consistory to the amount of twenty thalers. The pensioning of teachers is done at the will of government upon their own petition, or that of the school committee and consistory. In the city parishes, the pension is computed according to the law of Oct., 1832, and is paid by the city parish; it can not exceed four-fifths of the previous salary, and in the computation of the time of service, only those years are taken into the account which have been spent in teaching in that particular parish. In the country parishes, the new teacher receives a salary of 120 thalers, exclusive of rent, during the life of the former teacher, to whom the surplus of the revenues of the office goes as pension. The pension must, however, amount at least to what it would be were it calculated in accordance with the above-mentioned law upon a salary of 120–150 thalers, according to the time which the pensioner has spent in teaching since his appointment. Should the surplus be less than this, the deficiency is

supplied from the parish treasury if the time of service, which was made the basis of the calculation, was spent entirely in the parish. Otherwise, the parish only pays the amount proportioned to the time actually spent in the parish, and the remainder is paid from the cloister and education fund. By the laws of Sept., 1848 and July, 1853, all teachers have a claim, through the liberality of the government, upon the "Civil Officers', Widows' and Orphans' Fund." The annual contribution of the teacher to this fund amounts to 3 per cent.—the widows' pension to 16 per cent. of his salary. Sometimes, also, needy teachers are allowed upon petition a pension from the cloister and education fund. There also exists a noble endowment, with a capital of 35,000 thalers, under the management of the consistory, for the support of poor country school teachers and their widows, which was founded by the late chief recorder Wäterling of Wolfenbüttel, in 1822. The annual assistance given to any one person from this fund can not amount to less than ten thalers, nor to more than thirty. In 1852, the managing committee of the Teachers' Association made a contract with the Fire Insurance Company of Aachen and Munich, by which a kind of dividend is paid upon the total amount of insurance effected upon the movables of the teachers, and this dividend is applied to the benefit of teachers' widows and orphans. The income from 1852 to 1856 amounted to 310 thalers, from which annual individual appropriations of twelve thalers were made. There also exists a Teachers' Mutual Life Insurance Company, which grants to the survivor an allowance of forty thalers. On the erection of new school-houses, the law requires parishes to provide residence for the widows of teachers, and some parishes have furnished them with homes by the endowment of lands and the like.

The teacher's official title is "Parish School Teacher;" the consistory occasionally confers the title of "Chorister," (cantor.) The Duke also sometimes decorates a zealous teacher with the cross of the order of Henry the Lion, of the second class, and has once, very recently, bestowed the cross of the first class. There were, formerly, female teachers employed in the public schools, but they are now no longer met with.

Private schools and institutions exist in several of the larger cities, among which we mention—3 Catholic schools, (8 teachers, 170 pupils,) 4 parish schools, (5 teachers, 74 pupils,) 3 young ladies' schools, (53 teachers, 335 pupils,) several infant schools, 3 Sunday and evening trades' schools, the noted carpenters' school of Haarman in Holzminden, (a boarding school,) the two private institutes of Dr. Rölecke, (agricultural and technic,) at Brunswick, and of Dr. Keller, at Lesse, the Jewish Educational Institute at Wolfenbüttel, with a capital of over 100,000 thalers, at Brunswick the deaf and dumb institution, (3 teachers, 23 pupils, about 20,000 thalers capital,) the Institute for the Blind, (3 teachers, 11 pupils,) and the Rescue House before the Stone Gate, (15 girls, 7 boys, and increasing rapidly.) In Seesen is the Jacobson Orphan Institute in connection with a school.

II. ORPHAN AND RESCUE HOUSES.

The extensive Orphan House of the Blessed Virgin Mary, in the city of Brunswick, was endowed as early as 1245, by the council and burghers, and in after years was enriched by valuable privileges and gifts, so that it now enjoys an annual income of 18,000 thalers. Originally arranged for sixty boys and as many girls, it now receives nearly 200 orphans, not all of whom are from the city. The children receive, in temporal and spiritual respects, very good care, and even after confirmation derive much support and aid from the asylum. The Tuckerman Orphan House was founded in 1678 by the widow of the Abbot Tuckerman for the benefit of twenty female orphans. At Wolfenbüttel there was also an orphan house established in 1658 for the reception of 12–15 children, but in recent times it has been deemed preferable to place the orphans in families, by which means a larger number of children are well provided for. The extensive buildings of the Orphan House are used for a school and for the residence of the seminary director and seminarists.

For neglected children there is a House of Correction in the village of Bevern. The inmates receive instruction in useful occupations and the necessary studies from the pastor and a single teacher.

III. CLASSICAL SCHOOLS.

It is only with extreme sorrow that a citizen of Brunswick can reflect that his country has now lost the most precious pearl from its crown of learned institutions—the once so flourishing Julian College, endowed by Duke Julius to fulfill the vow made by his father in his grief for the loss of two sons in the battle of Sievershausen, in 1553, first as a grammar school at Gandersheim, and afterwards as a University at Helmstedt, where, in 1576, Martin Chemnitz delivered the inaugural discourse. After this university had been for a long time a strong citadel of pure learning, it was destroyed in 1809 by the barbarity of the French, and since then Göttingen has been regarded as the national university. Between the university and the gymnasia stands the Caroline College at Brunswick, which took its rise from the cloister school at Marienthal, under the reign of Charles I., consisting, since 1835, of classical, technical and commercial departments, (with 18, 85 and 4 students, respectively,) under a scientific corps of instruction of 21 professors. It receives an appropriation of 16,000 thalers from the cloister and education fund. We mention also the Theological Seminary founded at Wolfenbüttel in 1836, (the government of Westphalia abolished all the earlier institutions and applied their endowments to the benefit of its higher officials,) because its students are also employed to give instruction in the city schools.

The gymnasial system rests upon the school ordinance of July, 1569, which has become extended in its application as new institutions have from time to time arisen. The relatively strong development of this system is due, principally, to the fact that proper real schools are wanting, and therefore those that would otherwise attend them, are obliged to

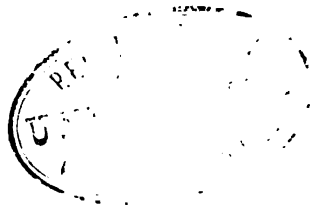
receive their education in the lower classes of the gymnasia. The highest superintending authority rests with the consistory at Wolfenbüttel; secondarily, every gymnasium is under an "ephory," who is one of the higher ecclesiastical dignitaries; the immediate oversight is intrusted to the directors, who are also the head teachers, and are usually styled "professors." The gymnasial teachers are in part "regular" teachers, (distinguished as "colleagues," "teachers," and "head teachers;" the class teacher is styled "ordinarius,") and assistant teachers, (for instruction in arithmetic, writing, drawing, &c.) The regular teachers are appointed by the prince on nomination of the consistory, and being commissioned, are in the position of civil officials. They were formerly generally selected from the younger theologians, but more recently there has been a sufficient number of well educated classical men to fill the situations. The reversion of a teachership in the gymnasia is obtained by an official examination before an examining committee. Regular teachers are required to serve a year under trial. The gymnasia are supported partly by the revenues of school property (funds and real estate) and tuition fees, and partly by appropriations from the cloister and education fund. The salaries of the teachers amount to 35,095 thalers, ($26,000,) of which that fund contributes 21,515 thalers. They range from 250 to 1,000 thalers, and are paid mostly in money, occasionally also in natural products. The directors are always provided with residence free of rent, and at some of the gymnasia, the teachers also.

The pupils, if they have not been elsewhere prepared for a higher class, usually enter the fifth class in their ninth or tenth year. The course in each of the lower classes continues one year—in the higher classes, by the regulations, two years. Some of the students receive considerable assistance by means of the stipends with which several of the institutions are liberally endowed. The tuition fees, e. g., at Holzminden, vary from 3½ thalers per quarter in the fourth class, to 5 thalers in the first.

The "Union Gymnasium" at Brunswick, since the abolition of the Martineum and Catharineum, includes three institutions;—the upper gymnasium, with a director, 7 teachers, 2 assistants, and 74 pupils, the pro-gymnasium, with a director, 6 teachers, 2 assistants, and 251 pupils, and the real gymnasium, with a director, 8 teachers, 4 assistants, and 214 pupils. The gymnasium at Wolfenbüttel, called the "Great School," (with a director, 6 teachers, 2 assistants, and 127 pupils,) was endowed by Duke Julius in 1568 and gifted with valuable privileges. The gymnasium at Helmstedt has a director, 4 teachers, 2 assistants, and 56 pupils—at Blankenburg, a director, 5 teachers, 3 assistants, and 61 pupils—at Holzminden, a director, 6 teachers, 4 assistants, and 78 pupils. The latter originated in 1760 from the cloister school at Amelunxborn, is excellently supplied with means of instruction, and assists ten stipendiaries who receive free tuition, lodging, fuel, and attendance, and 52 thalers annually.

The course of instruction at the gymnasium at Wolfenbüttel during the

school year 1857–8 has included, throughout the five classes, German, French, religion, history, geography, arithmetic, writing, drawing and music, excepting that writing gives place to English in the two higher classes, and drawing to Hebrew in the highest. Latin is commenced in the second year, and Greek and mathematics in the third year and continue through the remainder of the course.



V. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN MECKLENBURG.

HISTORY. TERRITORY. POPULATION.

MECKLENBURG embraces the two Grand Duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, which rank respectively as the thirteenth and twentieth States of the German Confederacy. The grand-ducal families, both in Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, are descended in direct male line from the last king, or prince of the *Obolrites*, Pribislav II., who died in 1181. The Obolrites belonged to the great tribe of the *Sclavonians*, who were subdued by Charlemagne, but became independent in 820. In 1161 their country was conquered by Henry, duke of Saxony and Bavaria, who in 1166 restored a portion of it to the native prince, Pribislav II., who embraced the Christian creed, and became in 1170 prince of the German Empire. In 1348 the line of Mecklenburg (so called from the capital, Mikelenborg, now a little village,) was raised to the ducal dignity by the emperor Charles IV. In 1695, the ducal honors were restricted to two lines, occupying distinct territory. By an arrangement made in 1701 they have had each its own rulers and chambers of deputies, but are still intimately connected, both diets meeting annually together, making common laws and imposing common taxes for the whole territory. Lying between the Baltic and the basin of the Elbe, the surface is for the most part flat, with numerous lakes and extensive forests. The soil is generally fertile and cultivated with a skill unsurpassed in Germany, producing a large surplus of grain for export and distillation. Horses, cattle, and wool are also largely exported, the breed of horses being especially noted. Rostock and Wismar are the principal seaports, now connected with the cities of Güstrow and Schwerin by a railroad which runs in a southwesterly direction through the territory to Lauenburg and thence to Hamburg. It is the most sparsely populated portion of Germany. Until 1820 the peasants were in a state of mitigated slavery, able to acquire, enjoy, and transmit property, but bound to the soil so as to be bought and sold with it. In that year they were declared free, though their actual manumission did not take place till about 1825. The condition of the peasants, of whom a large proportion are noble, appears to be still much depressed. The religion is Lutheran, with the exception of a few Calvinists and Catholics, and about 4,000 Jews.

MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN contains an area of 4,701 square miles and a population, in 1861, of 548,449. It embraces the duchies of Schwerin

and Güstrow, the principality of Schwerin, and the dominions of Rostock and Wismar. Its capital is Schwerin, with a population of about 18,000.

MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ has an area of 997 square miles, with a population of 99,060 in 1860. It consists of the dominion of Stargard, and the small detached principality of Ratzeburg.

MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN.

1. *Primary Schools.*

In the earlier periods of public schools in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, the teachers were laboring men, poorly qualified and poorly compensated, keeping school only in winter, and obliged to depend for their main subsistence upon their summer's occupation. The school buildings were miserable, the rooms small, all apparatus for teaching wanting, and the long roads which the scholars journeyed over in order to reach the village schools, were often bad and fatiguing. The supervision rested nominally with the spiritual authorities, but was left too dependent upon the pleasure and disposition of the preachers and landed proprietors. The school ordinance of 1650 only prescribed that the pastor, or clerk, with his wife, should keep a school and give instruction in the catechism and prayers, in reading, writing, and sewing. The schools in the cities were not in a much better condition, even the liberally educated teachers being but poorly paid and looking upon the office only as preliminary to a pastorship, and its duties to be made as light as possible. Board was obtained by rotation among the families of the district, which was made obligatory by a law of 1698, unless an equivalent payment was made in money. Little was done for the improvement of schools until the time of Grand Duke Friedrich, (1756–1785,) who placed the schools to some extent under the charge of the civil officers, required that all teachers should undergo examinations, and allowed them the following emoluments: a dwelling-house containing a school-room with benches and tables, and, if necessary, another family room, besides chambers and stables, a garden of 100 square rods, enough of plowed land for four bushels of seed, meadow for two loads of hay, pasturage for two cows, a calf, ten sheep, and two swine, three or four cords of four-foot wood, wood and brush for fencing, and free carriage to mill, besides which every owner of a hide of land or of a cottage was required to pay, for the wages of the teacher, a bushel of rye and a half-thaler, (37 cents,) and every lodger or shepherd 1½ schillings (2 cents) weekly, half in rye and half in money. He also, in 1771, required that the schools under his immediate jurisdiction (the domanial schools) should be maintained for six hours each day from Michaelmas till Easter, with an hour's evening school for adults, and also for two days in the week during summer from 6 to 10, A. M., for children and adults, and 11, A. M. to 1, P. M., for children alone. For the better training of teachers he established, in 1782, a Teachers' Seminary at Schwerin, which was transferred in 1785

to Ludwigslust and was there sustained for many years. In 1862 it was transplanted to Neukloster, where fine buildings have been erected for it. Candidates here receive four years of preparatory training (from the age of fourteen to eighteen years,) are then employed as assistants in the city or country schools, and after two years of military service, receive another two years' special instruction in the science of teaching and in various agricultural and industrial occupations. During the long reign of Duke Friedrich Franz, of more than fifty years, the first attempt was made towards the union of labor or industrial schools with village schools, and in 1831 a special referee was appointed to decide upon all school questions, in place of whom since 1853 two referees have acted, under the educational department which is attached to the Department of Justice.

It is to be observed that under the constitution of both Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and in the administration of both governments, a distinction is made between the *domanium*, or that portion of the territory immediately under the control of the reigning prince, the landed estates or manors of the nobility, and those cities which are in a degree independent and are represented in the diet by the "landschaft." The same distinction is to be made in regard to the schools, which are designated as "domanial," "manorial," and "landschaft" schools—the last title being somewhat less general than "city" schools. The cities of Wismar and Rostock are in this respect wholly independent and have their schools entirely under their own control.

As respects school legislation more especially, the "fundamental law" of the land, of 1755, left the inspection of the city schools unimpaired to the magistrates, provided the schools were supported by the cities and they possessed the right of presentation to the teacherships—the right of superior inspection still being reserved to the prince. It made it the duty of pastors, under penalty of a fine, to visit and examine the schools within their parishes and to give instruction to the teachers, and in all manorial and landschaft schools the teachers were to be engaged by the civil authorities, upon producing a certificate and recommendation from the pastor, and were placed wholly under their jurisdiction except in matters relating to instruction. The regulation of 1771 respecting domanial schools was two years afterwards made general. In 1783 the examination of teachers for the manorial and landschaft schools was committed to "superintendents," and in 1795 to the pastors also, for whom were substituted, in 1821, the "præpositi," elected by the preachers from their own number and the presiding officer appointed by the prince, to whom of late years a permanent associate president has been added. The number of these officers in Mecklenburg-Schwerin has usually been thirty-seven. Upon the dissolution of the feudal system in 1821, the manorial and landschaft schools were newly organized upon the principle that it is the duty of each parish to provide for the education of its children, and the support of the schools was made obligatory

almost entirely upon the proprietors of the estates. Sixty families, embraced within a district not over half a mile in breadth, could be formed into one school society. The school-house must contain, besides the requisite dwelling for the teacher, a school-room sufficiently large to allow (in the domanial schools) six square feet to each child, and readily heated. Wherever there are churches, the teachers are also the sextons, and in any case, a trade or other occupation which does not interfere with school duties is permissable but can not be imposed. Appointment is made by the authorities within at least three months after a vacancy occurs, upon examination by the præpositus, and the place may again be vacated after six months notice by either party. The preparation of teachers is at their own expense and under the direction of certain designated preachers. By an ordinance of 1823, revised and re-enacted in 1854, and by subsequent acts, schools were to be maintained throughout the year, excepting three weeks of vacation at the high feasts, and five or six weeks at seed time and harvest, the summer schools being kept but three hours, from 7 to 10, A. M. Children over ten years of age who, by examination of the pastor in presence of the teacher and school authorities, are found able to read with ease and acquainted with the catachism, are granted permission to go into service during the summer. Attendance at school is obligatory upon completion of the sixth year, and all delinquency is punishable with fine or imprisonment. Instruction in the country schools is now limited to religion, reading, writing, the elements of arithmetic, and some knowledge of geography, and the teachers newly located are required to have either studied at the Ludwigslust seminary or at least to have passed the final examination at that institution. Subordinate teacherships have been formed when needed in connection with the larger schools, where unmarried teachers are located at a salary of 120 thalers ($90) annually, besides lodging and fuel, with the certainty of advancement after some years of faithful service. Assistant teachers are also employed in the domanial schools if necessary, who must be at least eighteen years of age and have passed the assistants' examination—they receive a salary of 28 schillings (35 cents) per week, with board and lodgings. Since 1842 the country domanial schools have been placed under the charge of special directories who provide for their maintenance and best interests—each school having two, one of which is a local magistrate, and the other, two of the householders or cottagers appointed by the officials and preacher in common. Of late years also it has become customary everywhere to form a special school fund from which, instead of by individual contribution, the teachers' wages are paid, amounting at the lowest to 40 and at the highest to 56 thalers, ($29.60–$41.44) half in money and half in rye.

In 1859 there were in Mecklenburg-Schwerin 1,132 country schools, i. e. in villages and boroughs, of which 575 were domanial and 485 upon the estates of the nobles.

2. *The City or Burgher Schools.*

These schools, until about 1830, were exclusively in the hands of the local authorities and still remain so as respects financial matters, location, &c. We have little information respecting their organization of earlier date than 1760, when an ordinance respecting the schools of Bützow required attendance to commence at the age of seven or eight, and the school session to hold from 7 to 10, A. M. and from 1 to 4, P. M., and to be opened and closed with singing. The teachers were a rector, co-rector, and a teacher of arithmetic, together with the cantor, who was subordinate to the rector but had exclusive charge of those commencing the study of Latin. No other teachers of Latin were allowed in the city. Both divisions of the school were required with their teachers to attend divine service, and also funerals, and to sing under direction of the cantor, and upon St. Gregory's Day to collect the customary perquisites at the doors of the houses.

The first movement towards any important improvement was made in 1834 through the coöperation of the government and local authorities, but with great diversity in the results, owing to the differences in the circumstances of the various cities. It is required that the rectors and co-rectors should have received a university education and have passed the second examination at the theological school, but such as have passed the first examination are now usually accepted, and by far the greater number of teachers are from the Teachers' Seminary at Ludwigslust. The rectors are often also assistant preachers and certain church duties are frequently attached to the lower positions. The salaries of the rectors range from 480 to 1,100 thalers—of the co-rectors from 400 to 700—of the lower teachers from 80 to 400—and these often consist in part of farm products. They teach, as a rule, from 32 to 36 hours per week—the rectors from 20 to 24. For private instruction in French and English, additional compensation is paid by the scholars. The difference as respects the number of scholars and of classes is very great, some schools having as many as nine classes, and others but a single one. The number of teachers usually corresponds to the number of classes. There is no general plan and little uniformity in the course of study, except that the usual branches of public school instruction are generally taught, and in many institutions the modern languages also as extra studies, while occasionally instruction is given in Latin in preparation for the gymnasium. The schools are under the superintendence of school committees, consisting of at least one preacher and a member of the local magistracy, with usually some of the citizens.

The organization of the schools in the domanial villages is similar, except that they are under the control of the Ministry of Instruction. In the manorial villages it depends upon special understanding and agreement between the authorities and the proprietors of the estates.

3. *The Teachers' Seminary, Trades Schools, &c.*

The only schools for the special education of females are private insti-

tutions, and these are quite numerous, there being at least one in every city, frequently two or three, and in the larger cities even more. Trades schools have been established in all the cities under an ordinance of 1836, and in 1850 an annual grant towards their support was made by the diet, of from 100 to 250 thalers to each of the forty cities of the duchy. Instruction is here given to apprentices and journeymen in arithmetic and writing, mathematics, natural philosophy, drawing and modeling. The Teachers' Seminary, now established at Neukloster, is under the supervision of a board of three trustees, and has five teachers, one of whom gives instruction exclusively in singing and music. There is a "seminary school" of six classes as a school of practice for the students, who there in regular order engage in teaching for an hour each day under the direction of the seminary teachers. The regular number of students is 64, who receive all necessary training in two classes, the course of instruction continuing two years, so that each year there are 32 new applicants for positions as subordinate teachers in the domanial villages or as assistants in the city and borough schools. Candidates for admission must be between the ages of 21 and 26 years, and are required to submit a brief account of their past life and course of study, and the trustees select from them, for examination, as many as may be necessary. The students reside in the Seminary and pay for instruction, room, and board, 52⅔ thalers ($39.) The expenses of the institution are otherwise defrayed by the government. An attempt has recently been made to establish a second seminary at Dobbertin, for the training of teachers for the manorial schools. The management is committed to the organist there, in whose house the students reside, under the care and oversight of the pastor. The number is at present limited to ten, who pay 100 thalers, in advance.

There are three naval schools, at Wustrow, Rostock, and Wismar. The first was founded in 1846, has three classes and a preparatory school, with a director, three teachers, and four assistants. The number of scholars since its commencement amounts to 1,655, of whom 199 have passed the master's examination, and 249 that for pilots. It is under the direction of the chief magistrate and two senior ship captains, who, together with the professor of mathematics at Rostock and the director, form the examining committee. Several years' service intervenes between the two examinations. The school at Rostock numbers about 100 scholars, in three classes, under the director and four teachers. The school at Wismar is maintained only during the winter.

The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at Ludwigslust, now has 58 pupils in six classes, of boys and girls equally, who live distributed among the families of the place. It has an inspector and five teachers, besides a teacher in basket-weaving and two female teachers in domestic matters. Rewards are given to such masters as give proper instruction to their deaf and dumb apprentices, and to the families which take the girls into service. The institution is supported principally by govern-

ment, and receives nine or ten pupils annually between the ages of eight and twelve.

4. Gymnasiums and Real Schools.

Traces of schools superior to the primary cloister and parish schools, are discovered as early as the commencement of the 14th century, but the origin of the five gymnasiums which now exist in Mecklenburg-Schwerin is due to the warm desires for a better training which were awakened in both rulers and people by the reformatory movements of the 16th century, as well as by the intercourse of the princes with the more highly cultivated courts and circles of Italy. The first was founded in 1541 at Wismar, and within ths next forty years there also appeared the schools of Schwerin, Güstrow, Parchine, and Rostock. Commencing with but few teachers and few classes, through the troublous times of the two following centuries they strove rather to save from the storms and whirlpools, that which they already possessed than to gain anything essentially new, but more recently with the increasing demands of the age, and under the stress of an increased population and number of those desiring instruction, they have passed alike through similar phases of development, gradually extending their courses of study, enlarging the force of teachers, and increasing the number of classes—enjoying the fostering care of the government and the favor of the people.

The "Gymnasium Fridericianum," at Schwerin, was commenced in 1553 as the "Castle School," upon the foundation of an earlier Lutheran school, with three classes and four teachers. It was newly endowed in 1781 by Duke Friedrich, and in 1818 received its present title and position, with enlarged advantages, from Grand Duke Friedrich Franz. It is purely a gymnasium, without real classes, and divides its course into three grades—a higher, embracing the first and second class; an intermediate, the two middle classes; and a lower, of the three under classes. The course of study continues nine years, of which two years are given to the first class, one and a half to each of the two following classes, and a year to each of the remainder. The branches pursued, with the number of hours per week given to each in all the classes, is as follows: Latin, 65 hours; German, 25 hours; arithmetic, 18 hours; religion, 17 hours; history, 16 hours; and natural philosophy, 13 hours. Writing is taught in the three lower classes, 8 hours; geography, in the five lower classes, 13 hours; French, in the five higher classes, 14 hours; in the four higher classes, Greek, 23 hours, and geometry, 8 hours; in the two higher classes, English and Hebrew, each 4 hours. There is also four hours' exercise in singing. It numbers 242 pupils.

The "Cathedral School," at Güstrow, was founded in 1553 upon an earlier cathedral school, and after having been enlarged and modified at various times, was in 1840 newly organized and divided into a burger and real school. The charge of the former was then wholly assumed by the government, while the city, which had previously aided in supporting the gymnasium, now has charge of the real school only. It has six classes, under nine teachers; the number of scholars in 1861 was 152.

The "Friedrich Franz Gymnasium," at Parchine, was established by the reörganization of an earlier school in 1563, and raised to the rank of a gymnasium and its patronage assumed by the government in 1827. Special arrangements were made in 1841 for the purpose of real instruction, and it now numbers 173 pupils in its six gymnasial classes, and 54 in the five real classes, under twelve teachers. It derives two-thirds of its income from the government, the remainder from the city.

The "Higher City School," at Wismar, founded in 1541, has now four gymnasial and three real classes, besides two elementary classes common to both departments. The course continues one year for each of the elementary, and two years for each of the gymnasial classes. The gymnasium numbers 302 pupils, and the real school 95.

The "Higher City School," at Rostock, was founded in 1850. As at Wismar, there is a real school in connection with the gymnasium and under the same direction. The first has 219 pupils in five classes, the gymnasium 285 pupils and seven classes.

In the organization and management of these schools, however, there is little of uniformity and harmony. Three of the gymnasiums, those of Schwerin, Güstrow, and Parchine, it is seen, appertain to the government. Those of Wismar and Rostock, on the other hand, are entirely independent of any but the city authorities, except that the government edict requiring the certificate of a "maturity examination" from all candidates for civil office as an evidence of the extent and thoroughness of their education, necessitates compliance with its provisions on the part of all the gymnasiums. All have local superintending authorities, "scholarchaten," but variously constituted and appointed. At Schwerin and Güstrow there are real schools, but wholly distinct from the gymnasiums and under separate control; at Wismar and Rostock, real classes have been established in close connection with the gymnasial and under the same direction; while at Parchine there are only parallel lessons in the natural sciences and modern languages for the benefit of the real scholars, who are excused from the Greek and, in part also, from the Latin, but receive common instruction with the gymnasiasts in all other branches unless an overplus of numbers makes a division of classes necessary.

But the want of unity extends yet farther. The gymnasiums are disconnected, isolated from each other. It has not occurred, perhaps, in twenty years that a teacher has been called or transferred from one institution to another. Familiar consultations of the directories together, or in connection with the authorities never take place. Selection and approval of text-books for common use is never made by the government authorities, nor have they in the last ten years or longer, proposed any general regulations respecting instruction, management, or aught else. Moreover, the office of gymnasial teacher is not officially recognized, and hence it is not strange that of the few Mecklenburgers who have devoted themselves to teaching, the most have left their country

and are now, many of them, settled in Prussia. Indeed, it is remarkable from how many different lands the gymnasial teachers are gathered, and how few of them are native Mecklenburghers. There are, for example, of the present teachers in the gymnasium at Schwerin but two natives of Mecklenburg among the older teachers and one among those recently appointed; of the remainder, two are from Prussian Saxony, one from the kingdom of Saxony, one from Hesse-Cassel, one from Altenburg, one from Hanover, and one from Brunswick. Of six others who in the last ten years have been engaged there, two were from Mecklenburg, one from Emden, one from Hanover, one from Leipzig, and one from Helmstadt.

The salaries of the gymnasial teachers vary greatly; at Güstrow they range from 450 to 1,500 thalers; at Parchine, from 448 to 1,724; at Rostock, from 400 to 1,800; at Schwerin, from 600 to 1,550; at Wismar, from 240 to 1,800; and at the real school at Güstrow, from 400 to 1,000 thalers. There are, moreover, two "Widows' Institutions"—one with a fund of $264,000, in whose benefits the the widows of gymnasial teachers participate, and another with a fund of $225,000 for the benefit of the widows of preachers and other than gymnasial teachers. There is also a Society of Relief for the orphans of preachers and university trained teachers, besides other special widow and orphan funds.

The "maturity examination" edict of May, 1833, must therefore be regarded as the one common bond of union, though it can not be asserted with what strictness and uniformity it is complied with by the schools. The examining authority under this ordinance consists of the "scholarchs" and such teachers as have received a university education, but besides this wider circle, who alone form the auditory at the oral examination, there is a much narrower one, upon whose judgment the decision depends, consisting of the "protoscholarch," the director, and the teachers who have conducted the examination. The students who are admitted for examination must have been connected with the first class of the gymnasium for at least a year and have pursued all its studies, including Greek. The exercises of the examination are a German composition, which is to be a general test of proficiency in that department; a Latin composition upon some historic-rhetorical subject; a mathematical exercise; a translation from the German into Greek; the translation and explanation of an ode of Horace not previously read in school; and a French composition upon some subject from later history. Upon these exercises a judgment is formed of the proficiency of the students, in which two grades are distinguished. For the first, it is necessary that the German composition should be arranged with logical correctness and that its style be fluent and appropriate. The translations from Greek, Latin, and French must be made without previous preparation. He should be able to read Horace and Virgil after brief consideration, and be as intimate with Homer as the usual school lexicons and grammers will allow. He should show a ready knowledge of all ordinary forms of syntax and etymology,

and be able to give satisfactory information respecting unusual forms and idioms, the rules of prosody, and the use of synonymous words. The Latin and French compositions are required to be grammatically correct, without Germanisms, and showing versatility of expression, and the Greek exercise must also be correctly accentuated. He should be acquainted with the dates, causes and effects of the main facts of general history, and with the connection of events in the history of Greece, Rome, and Germany, as well as with physical and modern political geography in its principal divisions, and the geography of the ancients and of the middle ages, so far as is necessary for historical instruction. In mathematics there is required a knowledge of the order and nature of the mathematical sciences, of algebra and the computation of powers and roots, and dexterity in the formation and resolution of equations of the first and second degrees; in geometry, a knowledge of the first six books of Euclid, with the eleventh and twelfth, a clear comprehension of the connection of the points of a systematically arranged proposition, and an acquaintance with logarithms and their application, and with plane trigonometry. There are also corresponding requirements in Hebrew. The satisfaction of three requirements assures a certificate of the first grade, but in order to impose no restriction upon the free development of talent in any special direction, it is also granted to any one who succeeds in German, Latin, and mathematics, and *one* other department; certificates of the second degree are conferred upon such as succeed in Latin, German, and *two* other departments, as may be selected by the candidate. These certificates may specify, at the discretion of the examiners, the first one degree, and the second two degrees, of honorable distinction.

The real schools have been mentioned in connection with the gymnasiums. The real school at Güstrow, under city patronage, reörganized in 1861, has six classes, ten teachers, and 192 scholars. The one at Schwerin, under the care of the sovereign, has six classes of 228 scholars, and a higher class of 46, and ten teachers. Its course of study embraces, in all the classes—German, 33 hours per week; religion and arithmetic, 22 hours each; history and geography, 18 hours each; singing, 8 hours. There commence in the sixth class, Latin, 22 hours, and drawing, 12 hours—in the fifth class, French, 21 hours—in the fourth class, English, 12 hours, and mathematics, 15 hours—in the third, natural philosophy, 6 hours—in the second, chemistry, 4 hours;—also, in the four lower classes, writing, 13 hours, and in the four middle, natural history, 8 hours.

MECKLENBURG-STRELITZ.

1. *Primary Schools.*

The same distinction between domanial and manorial schools is to be made here as in regard to Mecklenburg-Schwerin—the influence and power of the sovereign and of an organically regulated government being extended only to the first; the latter dependent on the one hand for their governing ordinances upon the rarely occurring concord among the

diverse elements of the many-minded chambers, and on the other, upon the pleasure, sagacity, and good-will of the individual proprietors of the estates. Though the nobility have the power and opportunity of employing their peculiar privileges to the great benefit and advancement of both the churches and schools within their estates, yet it is admitted that the manorial schools are as a whole inferior to the others.

The provisions of the early revised school law of 1650 having fallen into neglect, an ordinance was issued in 1711 expressing the displeasure of the then duke at the existing want of religious and other instruction, and requiring that the officials and pastors should insist upon the attendance of all children at school until able "to understand at least reading, praying, and Luther's catechism; that the country teachers should be engaged only with the knowledge and approval of the pastors, and that both teacher and scholars should appear weekly before the pastor for his examination." This oversight of the schools by the pastors was yet more strongly insisted on by the ordinances of 1773 and 1796, and some measures were taken for the improvement both of the teachers' positions and of their qualifications. A private seminary for the training of country teachers was established at Woldezk in 1801, but removed in 1805 to Neustrelitz and incorporated with the school institution there. The reign of the late Grand Duke George, commencing in 1816, formed a new epoch in the history of these schools. He declared it necessary to remove every useless and incapable teacher and to replace only such as were found, upon examination, capable and unexceptionable; their positions were to be made comfortable and desirable, and they to be relieved from pressing cares and the necessity of manual labor, "the pursuit of which is, as a rule, injudicious on the part of the teacher." To secure this object a teachers' seminary was newly founded at Mirow in 1820 and most liberally endowed, an account of which will be found under the next section. In 1830 pensions were provided for deserving teachers and clerks and their widows, and as a provision for their families a special "Life Insurance Company" has been formed among the teachers themselves. There has also been an endowment established for a similar purpose by a teacher with the profits from the sales of a collection of songs, which endowment received in 1850 the government sanction and the privileges of a "pium corpus."

The present school regulations are contained in the ordinance of Oct., 1826, which requires the schools to be kept six hours a day in winter, and from 7 to 9 A. M. in summer, with four weeks vacation in the hay and grain harvests and two weeks at potato gathering, school attendance being obligatory from the completion of the sixth year till confirmation. Neither household occupations, the tending of cattle, the care of children, nor any claims on the part of those having a right to service, are permitted to interfere with the attendance of the children at school, and only sickness or the excessive badness of the roads or weather in the case of those coming from a distance, can be accepted as sufficient excuse for non-

attendance. A committee, consisting of the pastor and two of the parishioners appointed by the magistrate upon his nomination, see to the general interests of the school, the observance of the ordinances, and the regularity of school attendance, and also keep account of the school moneys derived from fines and voluntary contributions. The preachers are also required to visit all the schools of their parishes at least once a month and to report annually to the consistory, while it is also the duty of the magistrates to visit the schools as often as possible, to insist upon the observance of the regulations, to sustain the authority of the teachers, and to report annually to the government. Corporal punishment can be inflicted only when other means fail of effect. The branches of instruction are usually religion, reading, writing and orthography, arithmetic, (especially mental,) exercises in thought and committing to memory, and singing. The plan of study, method and means of instruction, &c., are determined by the consistory, and the teachers are instructed thereupon by the preachers, "in order to an uniformity in school management and in education, as far as possible." If the size of the school or the inequality of the children's ages require it, a division may be made by direction of the pastor, or the smaller children may be dismissed an hour earlier than the others. A public examination is held annually on a Sunday afternoon in church, to add solemnity to the occasion and to give it a religious coloring, and as rewards to such as have been remarkable for diligence and obedience, useful books are given at the expense of the school funds.

Each country teacher receives the following emoluments:—a residence, with a garden of at least 100 square rods, and as much more for potatoes and flax; pasturage for a cow and calf, two swine, two geese with their broods, and as much hay and straw as is needed for wintering the cattle; exemption from all taxes, from night patrols, and from parish service except when necessary; eight to ten cords of wood, or in place of a portion of it, an equivalent quantity of peat; 24 bushels of rye and 12 of barley; and a salary of 10–20 thalers, ($7.50–$15.00,) besides the school fees. This money payment is wholly or in part withheld if the teacher also carry on a trade, and as he is also the clerk of the parish, he has the additional perquisites of that office. The raising of flax, silk, tobacco, caraway, madder, teasels, and especially of garden produce, as well as the care of trees and bees, are considered the most suitable and profitable business for the teacher.

The number of scholars in a single school may not exceed 60–70; new schools must be formed whenever necessary. The number of country schools in the grand duchy is 231, of which 54 are in the principality of Ratzeburg. Of the 177 in the dominion of Stargard, 111 are domanial schools and 66 are manorial, while in the principality all are domanial with a single exception. Since 1854 various institutions for the care of neglected children have been founded, and the number of knitting and sewing schools been much increased.

II. *Gymnasiums and City Schools.*

Of these institutions, which are here so nearly connected as to be most conveniently considered together, the immediate jurisdiction is in the hands of the consistory, under the superior direction of the government. There are three gymnasiums, (a large number for so small a territory,) at Neustrelitz, Neubrandenburg and Friedland, and until fifteen years ago, another at Ratzeburg. At Neustrelitz there were established in 1806 a high school and a primary school for boys, a female school, and a poor school. From these there have gradually grown the Gymnasium Carolinum, having now five classes and 146 pupils; a real school, made in 1837 an independent institution, with three classes and four teachers; three elementary classes, which are preparatory to the gymnasium and real school; and a primary burgher school. The female high school, which until 1831 occupied the gymnasial building and was under the director of the gymnasium, is now distinct, having its own edifice and directory, and under the supervision of the consistory; it has four classes and a primary department of two classes. There are also schools preparatory to these and under a special committee. The course of instruction at the gymnasium is as follows:—in all classes, Latin, 43 hours per week; mathematics, 18 hours; German, 14 hours; religion, 12 hours; French, 11 hours; singing, 8 hours—in the four higher classes, Greek, 22 hours; history, 9 hours; natural philosophy, 5 hours—in the lower classes, geography, 6 hours; arithmetic, 5 hours; and writing, 8 hours. At Neubrandenburg, the Latin school, so-called, of 1811, has been enlarged until it now has four gymnasial classes, with three real classes parallel to the three lower gymnasial classes and very often combined with them. The total number of scholars is 181, all of whom receive instruction in Latin. The burgher and elementary school are also preparatory to the gymnasium. The female burgher school, founded in 1810, now embraces five classes; in the three higher classes instruction is given in the French language, including conversation, and also English in the highest class. In the gymnasium at Friedland, which is perhaps the oldest of all, an essential advance was made ten years ago towards the combination of gymnasial and real instruction, in consequence of which there are five classes, the third and fourth being formed into separate divisions. Greek and Latin were omitted in the second division of the fourth class, French was commenced in the lowest class, and two English classes were organized for such scholars as were excused from Greek, while religious instruction ceased in the three higher classes, and history, mathematics, and natural philosophy were continued through the course. There is also a burgher school of three classes, with a special female department having two classes. At Schönberg there is a city school of ten classes, and other burgher or city schools of four, or usually five classes, in each of the cities of the duchy.

As respects the course and extent of instruction at the gymnasiums, they are mainly governed by the proclamation of Aug., 1837, which cor-

responds to the edict regulating the examinations of the gymnasiums in Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The requirements differ in some respects in the two duchies, but not to any great extent. Besides the Latin composition there is required a Latin "extemporale," and in the Greek an additional translation into Latin of some portion of a tragedy of Euripides or Sophocles that has not been previously read, but in the preparation of these exercises and the other compositions, &c., the students are permitted the use of all the necessary lexicons. There are also required in natural philosophy a knowledge of the general properties of bodies, the laws of equilibrium and motion, electricity and magnetism, of light and heat, and in chemistry, of the elements and their principal combinations. Nearly a week is spent in this examination, five hours being allowed for the mathematical task, three for each of the Greek and French exercises, five for each of the compositions, three for the translation from the Greek and for the Hebrew exercises, and two for the Latin "extemporale." There are moreover some differences in relation to the constitution of the examining committee, and in the influence of the teacher who has conducted the examination upon the final decision which is reached by the committee.

The Teachers' Seminary at Mirow, opened in 1820 with four pupils, took the place of the earlier seminary that had been united with the school at Neustrelitz. It was placed under the control of men to whom every facility had been given for fitting themselves for the office—Giesebrecht, the first principal, having spent a year in association with Pestalozzi, and Gerling, who was at its head from 1829 to 1856, having been for a year in the noted seminary at Weissenfels, then under the charge of Harnisch. At first it received boys of the age of eleven or twelve, who were for eight years gratuitously instructed and cared for in the family of the principal, or, afterwards, of the steward, and as these were intended for the domanial schools, an additional arrangement was made in 1822 for the benefit also of the manorial and city estates. The younger students received instruction in connection with the higher classes of the city schools, while the older seminarists found in the same schools opportunity for teaching. But in 1839 the whole plan was changed, the course was limited to five years, and six pupils, from 14–20 years of age, were admitted every three years, who provided themselves only with clothing, writing materials, and text-books, and among the other candidates there were also ten half-pensioners who received 80 thalers annually. In 1852, by way of trial, it was determined to receive journeymen workmen of 24 to 26 years of age or less, of suitable character and free from military service. It is found that 14–16 pupils are sufficient to supply the wants of the territory. Instruction in silk culture has been given since 1826, and in place of gymnastic exercises, occupation has of late been given in the field, garden and meadow; more recently instruction has also been given in the raising of bees and culture of fruit trees. The management of the seminary and of the local schools is in the same hands, and several of the teachers are employed alike in both.

VI. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN LIPPE-DETMOLD

AND SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

THE ancient principality of Lippe has been for some two hundred years divided into the two principalities of Lippe-Detmold and Schaumburg-Lippe, lying upon opposite sides of the river Weser, and within the limits of Westphalia and Hanover. The former, traversed by the Jeutoburg forest range, and more pleasant than fruitful, possesses an area of 447 square miles and a population of 108,513 in 1861; the latter, 170 square miles and 30,774 inhabitants. The capitals are Detmold, (population, 4,716,) and Bückeburg, (population, 3,250.) The prevalent religion in the one territory is Calvinistic; in the other, Lutheran, with a few Catholics. The reigning houses have a common origin, traced back to the thirteenth century; their powers are limited under the constitutions which were established in 1836. The last traces of bondage among the people had been abolished in 1810. The principal occupation is agriculture and the people are generally intelligent, the princes having long been liberal patrons of popular education. The Gymnasium at Lemgo, and the High School and Teachers' Seminary at Detmold are in high estimation, and many of the most celebrated scholars of Germany have received their early training at the one or the other.

I. LIPPE-DETMOLD.

Primary Schools.

During the latter period of the last century and the first of the present, Lippe-Detmold was fortunate in possessing in immediate succession three very gifted General Superintendents, (Ewald, Cölln, and Wurth,) who took the deepest interest in the education of the people, and common schools improved more rapidly, especially under the regency of the Princess Pauline, than in any other State of Germany. After her death, and that of Superintendent Wurth, this improvement ceased, and though the political movements of 1848–9 had in view an educational reform and succeeded in procuring the Common School Law of Dec., 1849, yet this law made few changes, several of its provisions have been since abolished, and the supervision of the schools still rests with the Consistory as before, though the law provides for the appointment of a special Board of Superintendence.

The school age extends from the seventh to the fourteenth year inclu-

sive, and the number of scholars in attendance is about 15,500, or nearly fifteen per cent. of the population. The number of school communities is 108, in which there are engaged 130 principal, 33 assistant, and 8 temporary teachers. There are also Jewish communities with ten teachers. Parishes with less than thirty scholars have no claim to a special school; if the number be over 120, an assistant teacher is employed, unless it can be avoided by a transference of scholars to other schools. The support of the schools is provided for by Government, while the maintenance of school buildings and the providing of the necessary school apparatus rests upon the community. An annual tuition fee of twenty silver groschen (forty cents) is paid by each child, if there be not more than two from the same family, which goes into the general treasury, as the salary of the teacher is fixed.

By far the greater number of the evangelical schools are immediately under a school committee, consisting of the pastor, the teacher, a magistrate, and six or eight members chosen from the community, half of the number being elected every three years. The special oversight of the school devolves upon the pastor, and the committee has to report to the Consistory semi-annually respecting the result of the examination, giving a certificate of the subjects that have been passed over, the scheme of lessons for the succeeding half-year, a copy of the diligence roll, and a statement of the amount of knitting, sewing, &c., that has been done in the school. There must also be annually given a duly certified copy of the school accounts.

Each school is divided into three classes, which are taught separately as far as possible, the middle class, however, usually sharing in the instruction given to the others. There is no division of scholars by sex except where there are two or more principal schools. The subjects of instruction are, for the most part, reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, singing, religion, with Biblical history, German, and what is of most importance in "common science." To this latter branch there are usually given but two hours a-week. Where the upper class has a special teacher, some lessons are also given in drawing and there are occasional exercises in declamation. The time legally required of each teacher is twenty-six hours per week, but as this is seldom sufficient for the real wants of the scholars, most of the teachers willingly give several hours more. Three hours in the morning and two in the afternoon is the rule, Wednesday and Saturday afternoons being excepted. The morning is usually given to the instruction of the upper class. In some places the "shepherd schools" are still held during the mid-day for the benefit of the children engaged in tending cattle, the herds being then in stall.

Religious instruction is given by the teacher, the pastor having a general supervision and giving the instruction preparatory to confirmation. The text-books are the Bible and hymn-book and some Biblical history, together with the Heidelberg catechism. There are no private schools,

unless we take into account the establishments for the care of infants, the sewing and knitting schools that exist in some places, and the spinning schools for the poor that have occasionally been provided by private benevolence.

The *Teachers' Seminary* at Detmold was opened in 1789 and is under the charge of a director, upon whom also rests the general superintendence of the public schools. He has a seat and voice in the Consistory, and represents in that body the interests of the schools. The course of training, which continues three years, is mainly in accordance with the Prussian system. The candidates are principally from the peasant class and middle classes of the city. The preparation required is only such as can be acquired at the public schools, with the addition of some knowledge of drawing and the piano. The number of students averages twenty, of whom four receive their board free of expense; the remainder, only tuition, lodging, and light. The location of the teacher is made, immediately upon his leaving the Seminary, by the Prince through the Consistory. When thus definitely located, they enjoy the rights of State officials. Some city communities have preserved their ancient right of appointment, but the privilege that was granted to the rest in 1849 of making a selection from those teachers nominated by the higher school authorities, was afterwards withdrawn.

The annual income of an assistant teacher amounts to 110–130 thalers, ($81–$96,) besides free lodging. The minimum salary of principal teachers is 150 thalers, besides the use of the school residence. An increase of 20–30 thalers is made to this minimum after five years service. Nearly one-half of the teachers receive less than 200 thalers, but eighteen receive more than 300 thalers, and but one more than 500 thalers. This salary is paid, in part, in natural products, besides which there is the use of a garden and some land, reckoned at a light rent. Superannuated teachers are laid aside with a pension whose amount increases with the length of service. Widows and orphans receive from the Widows' Fund an annual pension of thirty thalers, besides twenty thalers for burial expenses. Each teacher contributes three thalers to the Widows' Fund annually, the new teacher paying ten thalers in addition and one-fourth thaler more for each thaler of salary above eighty thalers.

Rector Schools.

The so-called Rector Schools, four in number, are intermediate between the primary and classical schools. The course of instruction adds Latin, French, and English to the usual branches of the primary schools. The number of scholars in each varies from ten to thirty, between the ages of nine and fifteen. The rectors have the same obligations as the teachers of common schools and are under the same authorities, but do not rank as State officials. Their salary, averaging about 800 thalers, is raised by the community, to whom on that account their election belongs. The rectors are usually young theologians, who after some years become pastors, and to whom their school experience is a great advantage.

Gymnasiums.

The Gymnasium Leopoldinum at Detmold was originally a rector school, but was gradually extended and improved until in 1833 it was reorganized, with new buildings, under its present title. It is under the control of a committee of three, including a government official and a member of the Consistory, while the director has the immediate management of the institution and teachers. An annual appropriation of 6,000 thalers is made for its support and the teachers, who rank as State officials and possess the rights and duties of citizens, are appointed by the Ministry. A preparatory school, or pro gymnasium, receives the pupils from six to nine years of age; its teachers are not under the director, but rank with those of the common schools and are liable to dismission upon notice. There are nine gymnasial classes, to which are added two real classes, parallel with the second and third gymnasial. The number of pupils in the winter, 1860–61, was 298, of whom forty-seven were in the real classes, and forty-four in the higher gymnasial classes.

All the branches of study are obligatory, even gymnastics, though dispensations are given. At the close of the school year a three days' examination is held, determining the proficiency of the students and their preparation for the University, and closing with an oration on the part of the students and a valedictory address from the director to the graduates. The salary of the director is 1,000 thalers, with a residence. The teachers receive salaries of 400 thalers and upward.

The Lemgo Gymnasium is far older than that of Detmold, having been in existence before the Reformation. It attained its highest prosperity and reputation in the early part of the present century under the rectorship of Reinert and solely through his remarkable personal ability. Until his resignation, in 1819, it was simply a city institution, scantily endowed, and with but few teachers. Afterward, and principally through the favor of Princess Pauline, many privileges were granted it and its financial condition greatly improved; still it never regained its former renown and large attendance of pupils from abroad. It is under the supervision of the city magistrates and a government officer, and is in part sustained by appropriations from both the State and city treasuries. It possesses a library of 6,000 volumes, for the use of teachers and students. Its organization and course of instruction are similar in most respects to those of the Detmold gymnasium, while the discipline is somewhat more strict. The salaries vary from 300 to 320 thalers in addition to house-rent and some other small perquisites. The tuition fees range from six to twenty thalers annually. The number of students in 1862 was one hundred and thirteen.

At Detmold there is a *Higher Female School* with several classes, sustained by the school charges, which are not inconsiderable. There is a similar institution at Lemgo under the charge of a female principal.

[☞ See page 576.]

VII. PRESIDENTS OF NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.*

CHESTER DEWEY, D. D., LL. D.

CHESTER DEWEY was born at Sheffield, Mass., Oct. 25th, 1784. He graduated at Williams College in 1806, studied for the ministry, and was licensed to preach in 1808, and during the latter half of that year officiated in Tyringham in Western Massachusetts. In the same year he accepted a tutorship in Williams College, and in 1810 was appointed professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, which office he held for seventeen years, doing much to advance the standard of scholarship and to enlarge the course of study in his own and kindred departments, while over the students his influence was often beneficially exerted. Between 1827 and 1836 he was principal of the "Gymnasium," a high school for boys at Pittsfield, Mass., and in the latter year removed to Rochester, where he was principal of the Rochester Collegiate Institute until 1850. He was then elected professor of chemistry and natural philosophy in the University of Rochester, which post he still holds. Prof. Dewey has been a frequent contributor to the American Journal of Science and Arts, and is the author of several special botanical treatises, including a "History of the Herbaceous Plants of Massachusetts," written for the State government. Until within a few years he has employed his vacations in lecturing at the medical colleges at Pittsfield and Woodstock, Vt. In the course of his long career as a teacher, he has delivered over 4,000 lectures and preached nearly as many sermons. He has effected much for the advancement of public schools and was active in the establishment of the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected the first President in 1845.†

JOSEPH MCKEEN, LL. D.

JOSEPH MCKEEN was born in Antrim, Vt., and removed to the city of New York about the year 1818, where he engaged in teaching, at first in a private school, and afterwards for a long time in Public School No. 5, situated in Mott Street. Mr. McKeen was among the originators of the State Teachers' Association, and was elected Vice-President in 1845, and President in 1846. In February, 1847, he commenced the publication of the "American Journal of Education" in New York, which was discontinued in May of the same year, when he assumed the editorship of the "Teachers Advocate," the organ of the Associa-

* A biographical sketch of John W. Bulkley, chairman of the preliminary convention in 1845, and President of the Association in 1850, may be found in Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Education, Vol. XIV., p. 28, in connection with the National Teachers' Association, of which he was also President. A sketch of the life of C. R. Coburn, fourth President of the Association, is given in the Journal, Vol. XV., p. 391, in connection with the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association.

† From Appleton's New American Cyclopædia.

tion, which had been commenced in September, 1845. He continued connected with this Journal, assisted by J. N. McElligott, S. S. Randall, and E. P. Allen, until its discontinuance in December, 1850. In 1848 he was appointed Superintendent of Public Schools in the city of New York, the duties of which post he performed with marked ability. In 1854 the labors of the office were divided and Mr. McKeen continued as Assistant Superintendent, spending no less time than before in the schools and working no less arduously for their good. He died on the 12th of April, 1856, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. By his labors for a quarter of a century, as an unflinching advocate, at once judicious and able, of common schools, he exercised an influence which made his name well known and honored throughout his State.

SAMUEL B. WOOLWORTH, LL. D.

SAMUEL BUELL WOOLWORTH was born at Bridgehampton, Suffolk county, L. I., Dec. 15th, 1800. He was the son of Rev. Aaron Woolworth, D. D., long the pastor of the Presbyterian church in that town. His mother was the daughter of Rev. Samuel Buell, D. D., the venerated pastor over the church at Easthampton, L. I., and the predecessor of Rev. Lyman Beecher. He was fitted for college by his father, (who, like many clergymen in those days, had a number of theological and classical students under his instruction,) and entered the Sophomore class of Hamilton College in 1819. Soon after graduation, he became assistant teacher in Monson Academy, Mass., teaching algebra, geometry, and natural philosophy, in addition to the elementary branches, and assisting the principal, Rev. Simeon Colton, in chemical instruction, then for the first time given at the academy. Among his pupils at Monson were Henry Barnard and William A. Larnerd, afterwards professor at Yale College.

His success at Monson was such that he was invited in 1824 to take charge of the Onondaga Academy, at Onondaga Valley, N. Y., and having now determined to make teaching the business of his life, he accepted the position. He here remained six years and raised the institution to a degree of prosperity and reputation which it had not previously known. This was probably the first academy in the State in which chemistry was taught, excepting the Albany Academy under Dr. Beck and Prof. Henry. In the spring of 1830 he was appointed principal of Cortland Academy, at Homer, N. Y. It here became his effort to build up a first class classical school and to provide for those who did not desire a college education, a liberal course of instruction in mathematics and the natural sciences. To this end a thorough division of labor was secured by the appointment of teachers who devoted their whole time, each to a department, his own time being devoted to the more advanced classes in the languages and the natural sciences, and to the general administration of the school. The effect of this arrangement was soon visible on the character of the academy. The number of pupils gradually increased from sixty to an average of three hundred, large classes were annually sent to the colleges of New York and New England, and it is not known that a Homer student was ever refused admission to any institution at which he applied. Mr. Woolworth remained in connection with this academy until 1852—twenty-two years. During the latter part of this period he delivered lectures on agricultural chemistry, which were largely attended by the young farmers of that section of the State. In 1847 he was unanimously elected President of the State Teachers' Association.

In the year 1852 Mr. Woolworth was appointed principal of the State Nor-

mal School at Albany. His long established character as a teacher contributed largely to secure public confidence in the school and to harmonize various conflicting educational interests. Under his influence, a reorganization of the school was effected, the departments of instruction were made more distinct, and teachers of liberal culture, acknowledged ability, and successful experience were secured for each department. The beneficial effect of these changes was soon apparent. The number of appointments to the school from the various counties largely increased, and before Dr. Woolworth resigned his position, in 1855, the disappearance of legislative hostility to the school indicated the confidence of the people in its management.

In December, 1855, Dr. Woolworth was made Secretary of the Board of Regents of the University of New York, an office of great influence in the advancement of higher education in the State. As Secretary of this Board he conducts their correspondence with the colleges and academies of the State, receives the reports of the different institutions to the Regents, and prepares the Reports of the Regents to the Legislature. These annual reports abound in statistical information, showing the relative condition of the colleges and academies in respect of property, debts, subjects of study, and general course of instruction, professors and teachers, and the number and the classification of scholars. He has annually visited a large number of these institutions, their relations with the Board have never been more harmonious than at the present time, and the good effects of his administration are in other respects most obvious. By invitation of the Board and largely through his influence, the teachers of the colleges and academies of the State have recently organized themselves into a permanent "Convocation," which promises to be of great benefit in elevating, liberalizing, and encouraging both collegiate and academic teachers in their views, methods, and labors. As Secretary of the Board of Regents, he has also charge of the State Library and of the State Cabinet of Natural History, and much of the interest of the "Natural History Collection" is due to his efforts. With the Secretary of State, he has for several years superintended the publication of the volumes upon the "Natural History" of the State, while he has also acted as Secretary of the Executive Committee of the State Normal School. In all these positions Dr. Woolworth has been a quiet, earnest, and efficient laborer in the cause of education and for the interests of his State.

In 1854 the degree of LL. D. was conferred upon him by Hamilton College, of whose Board of Trustees he has been for nearly thirty years a faithful and honored member.

CHARLES DAVIES, LL. D.

CHARLES DAVIES was born at Washington, Litchfield county, Conn., January 22d, 1798. While yet a lad he emigrated with his father to St. Lawrence county, N. Y., and settled on the shores of Black Lake, then little more than a wilderness. Here he pursued the usual occupations of a farmer till he was sent to West Point Academy, at which he entered as a cadet in 1814. He graduated with the rank of lieutenant in the light artillery, and after a brief but active service in his regiment, he was transferred to the corps of engineers and assigned to duty at the Academy as assistant teacher. In 1816 he relinquished the line of army promotion for that of the Academy, and after filling in succession the offices of assistant professor of mathematics and of natural philosophy, succeeded to the charge of the mathematical department and was commissioned

professor in 1823. In addition to his other duties, he now undertook the preparation of a series of text-books in the mathematics, but while engaged in the execution of the work a bronchial affection forced him to resign his post at West Point and in 1837 to visit Europe. Soon after his return he accepted the professorship of mathematics in Trinity College, Hartford, Ct., and resumed his labors as teacher and author, but ill health again induced him to exchange the position for that of paymaster in the army, and treasurer of West Point Academy. These offices he resigned in 1845 for the professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy in the University of New York, which, however, he shortly afterwards gave up for the purpose of completing his series of text-books. He then resumed his professional duties, first in the Normal School at Albany, and afterwards in Columbia College, where he still holds the office of professor of mathematics. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1852. His works, which are numerous and have been very extensively used in schools and colleges, are characterized by great perspicuity and clear logical arrangement, and considered as a series they present a natural order of sequence which makes them a valuable contribution to the educational resources of the country. They consist, in various editions, of—1. Primary Table Book. 2. First Lessons in Arithmetic. 3. Primary Arithmetic. 4. Intellectual Arithmetic. 5. Elements of Written Arithmetic. 6. Common School Arithmetic. 7. Mental and Practical Arithmetic. 8. Arithmetic for Academies and Schools. 9. University Arithmetic. 10. Grammar of Arithmetic. 11. First Lessons in Algebra. 12. Elementary Algebra. 13. University Algebra. 14. Bowdoin's Elements of Algebra. 15. First Lessons in Geometry. 16. Elements of Descriptive Geometry. 17. Elements of Analytical Geometry. 18. Elementary Geometry and Trigonometry. 19. Legendre's Geometry and Trigonometry. 20. Elements of Analytical Geometry and of the Differential and Integral Calculus. 21. Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. 22. Elements of Surveying. 23. Elements of Surveying and Navigation. 24. Practical Mathematics for Practical Men. 25. Practical Mathematics with Drawing and Mensuration. 26. Shades, Shadows, and Linear Perspective. 27. Logic of Mathematics. 28. Mathematical Chart. He has also published, in connection with Prof. W. G. Peck, a Mathematical Dictionary, and Cyclopedia of Mathematical Science.*

VICTOR M. RICE.

VICTOR MOREAU RICE was born in Maysville, Chatauqua county, N. Y., April 5th, 1818. He graduated from Alleghany College, Penn., in 1841, and entered the Chatauqua County Clerk's office the following year, at the same time commencing the study of law. In 1843 he was elected principal of the High School in Buffalo, which position he held for three years. He subsequently edited the "Western Temperance Standard." In 1848 he was again connected with the schools of Buffalo and so continued till 1854—the last three years as City Superintendent. His administration was characterized by the most liberal and enlightened policy, and the schools made commendable progress. Upon the creation of the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Mr. Rice was elected to that office in 1854, and has since been twice reëlected, with an interval of four years following the first term. He was a

* From Appleton's New American Cyclopedia



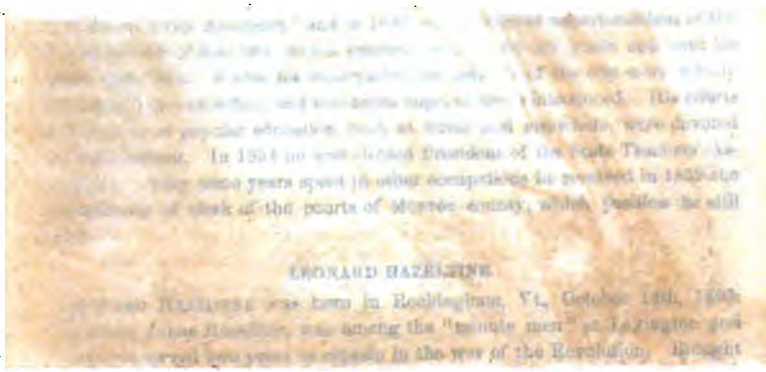


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Leonard Hazeltine

[illegible]

REUBEN O. JONES



LEONARD HAZELTINE



Leonard Bacon

member of the Legislature of 1861. The progress of public education has been most marked and the school policy, in its present form, owes much to his earnest endeavors. It is not too much to say that there are few men of more generous sympathies and that the welfare of the children of the State is his first and chiefest solicitude. Mr. Rice was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1853.

REUBEN D. JONES.

REUBEN DEAN JONES was born in Dover, Windham county, Vt., November 13th, 1815. After the usual country experience of farm labor in summer and district-school training in winter, ill health compelled him to give up the hope of a collegiate education, though he was afterwards able to extend his studies under the private instructions of his minister, the Rev. Isaac Cummings. His labors as teacher were commenced in the winter of 1834, and were continued with decided and growing success for a dozen years or more, in different places and with occasional interruptions. In 1841 he removed to Western New York and for three years conducted successfully a school in Cazenovia. The law creating County Superintendents had just gone into effect, and Mr. Jones spent much time and effort with the Superintendent of his county and a few other leading teachers, in arousing an interest in the cause of education and in establishing Teachers' Associations and Institutes. In 1844 he became principal of the Union School in Mumford, Monroe county, and under his energetic management it more than maintained its previous excellence and efficiency. In the spring of 1847 he resigned this position and became associate editor of the "Rochester Daily American," and in 1849 was appointed Superintendent of the Public Schools of that city, which position he held for six years and until his health failed him. Under his supervision the schools of the city were wholly reorganized and classified, and numerous improvements introduced. His efforts in the cause of popular education, both at home and elsewhere, were devoted and unremitting. In 1854 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association. After some years spent in other occupations he received in 1859 the appointment of clerk of the courts of Monroe county, which position he still holds.

LEONARD HAZELTINE.

LEONARD HAZELTINE was born in Rockingham, Vt., October 14th, 1803. His father, Jonas Hazeltine, was among the "minute men" at Lexington and afterwards served two years as captain in the war of the Revolution. Brought up upon a farm in Vermont, the subject of the present sketch enjoyed few educational advantages beyond those of the common school, yet nearly prepared himself for college while at the same time teaching during the winter months. Abandoning his design of entering college, he devoted himself more exclusively to teaching, which occupation he has now pursued for more than forty years. Having previously taught in the district-schools of Andover, Vt., and then in Schaghticoke, N. Y., he was for two years assistant, and for five years principal in St. John Academy, in New York city. In May, 1835, he was appointed by the Public School Society assistant teacher in Public School No. 14, on Houston street, of which in the following May he was made principal. This place he still retains, and over 10,000 pupils have been instructed by him. Since 1853, when all the public schools of the city were placed under the control of the

Board of Education, this school has been known as Grammar School No. 13, and under Mr. Hazeltine's management it has ever maintained a high rank. In May, 1865, a reunion of former pupils and school officers was held to celebrate the completion of his thirtieth year of service, and the occasion was one of great interest to all who took part in it.

Mr. Hazeltine was also teacher in the Saturday Normal School from soon after its commencement in 1836 until its passing under the control of the Board of Education in 1853, when he was appointed principal. Fifteen principals were associated with him in this school, and in the eight years prior to its discontinuance in 1861, the average attendance was about six hundred, and the number of graduates about one hundred annually. He was elected President of the Teachers' Institute for the county and city of New York, in 1847; of the New York City Teachers' Association, in 1850; and of the State Teachers' Association, in 1855—and in all these Associations he has been distinguished as an active and efficient worker.

THOMAS W. VALENTINE.

THOMAS W. VALENTINE was born in Northborough, Mass., February 16th, 1808. He enjoyed excellent opportunities of early elementary instruction in the district-school of his native town, where the influence of Rev. Dr. Allen, as Chairman of the School Committee, was felt for good for more than a quarter of a century. His father having removed to Worcester, he spent three years in the academy under the charge of Rev. Dr. Bailey, afterwards President of Franklin College, Ind. Having a strong predilection for teaching, he gave up preparation for college and taught his first winter in a district-school in Lancaster and after a further apprenticeship of four years in the schools of Northborough and Ashland, and for a short time in Pennsylvania, he removed to Albany in 1842, and for eleven years had charge of one of the public schools in that city. In 1853 he was superintendent of the O. han Asylum, and in 1855 became principal of a large public school in Brooklyn a successor of Mr. J. W. Bulkley on his appointment to the office of State Supe tendent.

Mr. Valentine has always been a zealous participator in the educational movements of the day. Before leaving Massachusetts he was active in getting up a County Convention of teachers in 1838; in 1844 he coöperated with Francis Dwight and others in obtaining from the Legislature of New York a better organization for the public schools of Albany; he was instrumental, in connection with other teachers of Albany, in calling the State Convention of Teachers in 1845, resulting in the organization of the State Association, in which he was Chairman of the Business Committee, and of which Association he was elected President in 1856; and he was also active in originating the National Teachers' Association in 1857. On the discontinuance of the "District-School Journal" in 1852, he projected the "New York Teacher" as organ of the Association, of which he was the Resident and principal Editor for the first two years. During this period he was member of the City Government of Albany, having been elected alderman from 1851 to 1854, and while in the City Council was Chairman of the Alms House Committee and took an active interest in the establishment of a Juvenile House of Industry.

GEORGE L. FARNHAM, A. M.

GEORGE LOOMIS FARNHAM was born at Ridgefield, Otsego county, N. Y., January 9th, 1824. When four years old, his father removed to Leonardsville, Madison county, where until his fourteenth year he was kept diligently engaged in his father's tannery and in attendance at the district-school. Naturally fond of knowledge, yet unable to profit from the methods of instruction then in vogue, and with little encouragement from either parents or teachers, he derived scant benefit from his books and only gained rather a thorough dislike for schools, school-teachers, and all that pertained to them. At this time, by a few almost chance words, his ambition was for the first time aroused and "to become a teacher" was the object of his determination. Giving his summers to labor, as "hired help" upon a farm, for the support of the family, but devoting every leisure moment to study, attending during the second winter a select school under a thoroughly competent teacher, but in general striking out a course from necessity entirely independent of his teacher's instruction, before the close of the third year he received his first certificate and engaged to teach his first school for twelve dollars per month and "board round." Thus he shortly established a reputation that gave him in 1844 one of the first public schools in Jefferson county. In 1845 he received the appointment to the State Normal School, where he spent a year under the teachings of Mr. Page, which gave form and system to his educational views and fixed him in the course he was to pursue. After teaching in Watertown and elsewhere, he was in 1850 made principal of one of the public schools of Syracuse, then had charge for a year of the Indiana Female Seminary at Indianapolis, returned in 1853 to Syracuse and established a private female seminary, which he resigned in 1855 to accept the Superintendency of the City Public Schools. These schools had already attained a high reputation under the management of A. G. Salisbury, E. A. Sheldon, and M. F. Brown, but the ordinary methods of instruction were still pursued, and the primary schools especially were considered of secondary importance and were conducted by teachers of inferior qualifications. In the eight years of Mr. Farnham's service, much of this was changed. The practice was initiated of placing the primary departments in charge of the most competent and best paid teachers, the methods of teaching were gradually changed to those by which instruction is addressed to the perceptive faculties as well as to the memory, a variety of apparatus was introduced for this purpose, and many of the appliances which are now considered essential to a well appointed primary school-room, were first employed in these schools. Taught by the experience of his own childhood, it was Mr. Farnham's anxiety to bring other teachers to appreciate the wants and difficulties that attend early instruction. The fact that for successive years he was reëlected by unanimous votes, while during much of his administration not a negative vote was cast in the Board of Education, speaks well of the appreciation in which his services were held.

Mr. Farnham has frequently been called upon to address Institutes and Teachers' Associations, and in 1857 was elected President of the State Teachers' Association. The session at which he presided was remarkable for its harmony and success. In 1852 he received the honorary degree of A. M. from Franklin College.

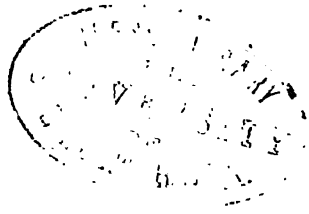
OLIVER AREY.

OLIVER AREY was born in Wellfleet, Mass., where his father was for many years an officer of the customs, a man of influence, and of a force of character that was inherited by his children. He was educated at Phillips Academy, Andover, and during this time took charge of a winter school in his native town. After graduating at Andover, he engaged in teaching in Virginia, but an epidemic fever prevailing in his neighborhood, he became worn out with the care of the sick, was himself attacked, and many months passed after his return home before he was able to resume his labors in the school-room. Four or five years were then spent in charge of a classical department in Cleveland, which he resigned for the care of a grammar school in Buffalo. From his first position he was soon promoted to the head grammar school of the place, and again to the principalship of the Central High School. This school had for some years previous been a scene of war within and without. Many prominent tax-payers objected to supporting a free academy of that character, declaring that the school was an injury rather than an ornament to the city; and for some reason the school within doors was a constant scene of insubordination among the pupils. Placed now at its head, without solicitation on his own part, Mr. Arey took the school, ruled out the insubordination, systematized a regular course of study, organized a most excellent corps of teachers, graduated large classes after a three years' course, increased the taxation necessary to its support by two or three hundred per cent., making at the same time its warmest and most zealous friends of those tax-payers who had before tried to suppress it, and left it in Nov., 1864, amid the earnest regrets of his pupils and the public generally, to assume the principalship of the New York State Normal School. In February, 1865, Prof. Arey was injured by a railroad accident, which has for a time hindered the prosecution of his work at the Normal School. In 1858 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Asssociation, and has frequently been called upon to lecture before this Association and others in the western part of the State. He was for two years member of the Board of Editors of the New York Teacher, and also for two years publisher of the "Home Journal," a valuable family magazine, now published in Boston.

EDWARD A. SHELDON, A. M.

EDWARD AUSTIN SHELDON was born in the town of Perry, Wyoming county, N. Y., October 4th, 1823. Until seventeen years of age he enjoyed only the advantages of a common school education, but subsequently an academy was opened in the town where he fitted himself for entrance to Hamilton College in 1844. Ill health forced him to relinquish his studies in the third year of the course, and visiting Oswego, his attention was called to the condition of the poor in that city. Through his investigations and representations, the "*Oswego Orphan and Free School Association*" was formed, and under its auspices he hired a school-room, gathered together from one to two hundred poor, ragged, and dirty children, and himself taught them. This was the first *Free* school in Oswego, and out of this movement originated the present flourishing free school system of that city. A year or two after this, in company with Mr. J. D. Higgins, he opened a private school, and while conducting it was unanimously elected Superintendent of the schools of Syracuse. In 1853, the friends of education in Oswego having after repeated efforts obtained a school charter and organized a





Board of Education, he was immediately recalled and as Secretary of the Board, entered upon the work of reconstruction. The schools had previously been managed upon the old district or trustee system, with little or no classification, and the first year was spent in organizing and grading them, and prescribing the course of study for each department. Mr. Sheldon's efforts were most untiring to supplant defective methods of teaching and to raise the schools to the highest perfection attainable. In this respect the primary departments were most faulty. He prepared a course of oral instruction for the primary teachers, provided them with such books, pictures, and apparatus for their work as could be procured, and met these teachers every Saturday morning for instruction and practical illustration in methods of teaching. Subsequently he prevailed on the Board to procure a teacher from the Home and Colonial Infant School Society, London, (Miss E. M. Jones,) for the purpose of introducing its methods. The result was the permanent establishment of the present "Oswego Training School," of which Mr. Sheldon is principal and which is now sustained by a State appropriation. In connection with this work he has prepared a "Manual of Elementary Instruction," designed as a complete guide to teachers in primary instruction; also a book entitled "Lessons on Objects; and a "First Reading Book," with a set of thirty-seven large illustrated reading cards to accompany it. The results of Mr. Sheldon's labors are well known to the friends of education, and have made Oswego "a sort of Mecca for educators from nearly all the loyal States." He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1860.

JAMES CRUIKSHANK, LL. D.

JAMES CRUIKSHANK was born in Argyle, Washington county, N. Y., August 28th, 1831. He pursued his preparatory college course under the late Rev. Peter Bullions, D. D., and entered Union College in 1847. He was obliged to suspend his studies at the end of the year, and engaged successfully in teaching for some two years, when he entered Madison University with the intention of studying for the ministry. Again interrupted in his plans, he took charge of a school in New Jersey and the attendant success determined his future course. He applied himself with diligence to the study of the educational policy of the country, methods of instruction, and educational reform generally, and on leaving New Jersey to open a classical school at Bellport, Long Island, he began to take an active interest in efforts throughout the State for educational improvement and progress. In 1855 he was elected one of the Board of Editors of the "New York Teacher," and was the same year appointed first clerk in the State Department of Public Instruction at Albany. The next year he resigned this position and became sole editor and publisher of the "Teacher," which was at the time involved in debt and its prospects by no means flattering. In his hands, and through his energy, perseverance, and skill, it soon recovered life and vigor, and now ranks among the first journals of its class in the country. Mr. Cruikshank has for several years been active in organizing and conducting Teachers' Institutes, spending considerable time in instruction and delivering public lectures. In 1861 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association. He was among the founders of the National Teachers' Association and has for years been an active member of the American Institute of Instruction. He received the degree of LL. D. from Allegany College.

EMERSON C. POMEROY.

EMERSON CLAPP POMEROY was born in Otisco, Onondaga county, N. Y., March 10th, 1818. With as thorough early instruction in reading, writing, and spelling as the district-schools of that day afforded, he grew up with a taste for reading which he indulged at every opportunity that his trade as a cabinet-maker afforded. Though proud of his abilities as a mechanic and of his reputation as an uncommonly skillful workman, yet he was always desirous of acquiring an education and completing a regular course of study. Not however until his twentieth year did desultory reading give place to actual study, and the first book placed in his hands for this purpose was Kirkland's English Grammar, of which subject he previously knew nothing, and which by its peculiarly attractive and easy manner led him on to profounder works and indeed a taste for the study of other branches. He shortly afterwards became a student at the Cortlandville Academy, then under the charge of Dr. Woolworth, and a year later he was under the instruction of Mr. Hosmer at the Moravian Institute, supporting himself by his labor. He first assumed the duties of teacher in the winter intervening between these two brief periods of semi-academic life, the opportunity coming unsolicited and unexpected, and the compensation not one-fourth of that he could earn at his trade. He was next engaged in a large school at Spafford Corners, with decided success—then for more than a year at Otisco Center, but before the close of his engagement was appointed County Superintendent and held the office two years. The vigor, energy, and intelligence he brought to his work were soon manifest in the impulse given to all measures of reform. He was afterwards for eleven years principal of Public School No. 12, in Buffalo, and of the Commercial Department of the Central High School for two years. He was for several years presidents of the Teachers' Institutes of Onondaga, Madison, and Erie counties, has assisted in other Institutes, and delivered educational lectures in different parts of the State. He has also been an active and efficient member of the State Teachers' Association, was a member of the Board of Editors of the "New York Teacher," and in 1862 was elected President of the Association.

EDWARD NORTH, M. A.

EDWARD NORTH was born in Berlin, Conn., March 9th, 1820—was graduated from Hamilton College with the valedictory oration in 1841, and in December, 1843, was elected to the professorship of Ancient Languages in that institution. He has discharged the duties of this position without a single term's interruption for twenty-one years, and has established a reputation as a highly accomplished scholar and man of letters. He has delivered frequent addresses before educational bodies, such as the National Teachers' Association, the New York State Association, of which he was elected President in 1864, the American Institute of Instruction, and various County Institutes in the State—some of which addresses have been published. Prof. North is one of a very small number of college instructors who feel it a duty to attend the annual educational gatherings of the State and country, and who take real pleasure in coöperating with teachers of every grade of school in the advancement of public instruction.

JAMES B. THOMSON, LL. D.

JAMES BATES THOMSON was born at Springfield, Vt., in 1810. With no other educational advantages than those afforded by the district-school for two or three months in the winter, and a single term at a neighboring academy, he had still made such progress as, at the age of sixteen, to be made teacher in the school of his native village. His success secured his engagement the following winter at a doubled salary, and for several years he thus continued alternately working upon the farm, attending the academy, and teaching. After two years' attendance at the academy at Plainfield, N. H., he completed his preparation for college, but was obliged to suspend his studies for nearly four years by a weakness of his eyes, which time was mostly spent in teaching in the Boston Juvenile Reform School, and in the Center School at Brighton, Mass.

After graduating at Yale College in 1834, his eyesight still forbidding a course of professional study, he remained a year at New Haven as resident graduate, in attendance upon the lectures of Dr. Taylor, and Professors Silliman and Olmsted, and in 1835 assumed charge of an academy in Nantucket, Mass. His excessive labors here in the school and Sunday-School and in the Lecture and Natural History Department of the Nantucket Atheneum, finally so far undermined his health that he resigned his position and removed in 1842 to Auburn, N. Y. He was here intrusted by President Jeremiah Day with the abridgment and adaptation of his algebra to the wants and use of schools and academies; a work which was skillfully and satisfactorily executed. He next prepared an edition of Legendre's Geometry, and subsequently a series of arithmetics for schools and academies.

In 1843 the first Teachers' Institutes in the State of New York were held in Tompkins and Cayuga counties, at the latter of which the mathematical department was conducted by Mr. Thomson. So deeply impressed did he become with their utility and importance as a means of promoting popular education that, declining the offer of a mathematical professorship in Indiana, he adopted them as a field of labor and did much to popularize and extend them through New York and many other States. From nearly every State between Maine and the Rocky Mountains has he received invitations to assist in Institute exercises. Besides his mathematical instruction, he delivered many addresses upon educational topics on these and similar occasions. He assisted in the formation of the New York State Teachers' Association in 1845, and has been rarely absent from its meetings. He was elected its President in 1864. The degree of LL. D. was conferred by Hamilton College in 1853.

Public School Society of New York.

Prior to 1805, the only schools in the city of New York which partook at all of the character of public schools, were one established by the "Female Association for the Relief of the Poor," in 1802, and those sustained by different religious denominations for the gratuitous education of the children of their own members. These were few, feebly sustained, and the course of instruction altogether inadequate.

In April, 1805, on the petition of De Witt Clinton and other individuals, a "free school" was incorporated by the legislature for the education of children who did not belong to, and were not provided for by any religious society. This school was organized in May, 1806, and taught on the plan then recently originated by Joseph Lancaster.

In 1808, the institution was enlarged by the legislature under the name of the "Free School Society of the City of New-York," and the city corporation presented a site for a school-house, and entrusted to its keeping the education of the children of the alms-house.

In 1809, the first edifice was completed and dedicated to its future purposes in an address by De Witt Clinton, the president of the society.

In 1815, the society received its quota ($3,708) of the first apportionment of the State Fund for the support of Common Schools.

In 1821, a committee of the society were instructed to correspond with distinguished educators, in Europe and the United States, for information on the subject of schools, and especially the education of the poor. This step resulted in some modifications of the plans of the society, and the methods of instruction in the schools.

In 1828, the first primary school was opened in the Duane street building, on the plan of the infant schools, which had been introduced into the large cities of the United States, under voluntary efforts. The result was favorable. It drew off the younger scholars from the other schools in the same building, and facilitated the instruction and government in both classes of schools. This school was for a time under the joint management of the society and a committee of ladies from the infant school society. At this time, Mr. Samuel S. Seton was employed by the society as an agent to visit the families of the poor, to make known the benefits of the schools and secure the punctual attendance of delinquent scholars. This step led to a knowledge of various abuses, and the introduction of several improvements. Mr. Seton has since acted as the Agent of the Society, and in this capacity has given unity to all of the operations of the several committees of the Board.

In 1828–29, the schools of the public school society were placed more on the basis of "Common Schools"—open to all, not as a matter of charity, but of right, and supported in part like other great public interests, by a general tax. This tax was *one eightieth of one per cent.*, and was the first tax raised by the city of New York, for the support of Common Schools; the memorial by which the attention of the Common Council was called to the subject was signed principally by the wealthiest citizens.

In the winter of 1832 a large committee on the part of the society, was appointed to examine into the condition of the schools, and propose such modification and improvement, as might be considered judicious. To aid the committee with the experience of other cities, two of their number were deputed to visit Boston and examine the school system and schools of that city. This committee reported certain modifications, which were concurred in by the board. These modifications were the establishment of primary schools, under female teachers, for the elementary classes, with some simple apparatus for visible illustration; an extension of the

studies in the upper public schools, so as to embrace astronomy, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and book-keeping; an increase of the salaries of teachers, the substitution of assistant teachers for certain class recitations and reviews, and the opening of recitation rooms for this purpose; the more extended use of blackboard, maps, globes, and other apparatus; and the establishment of evening schools for apprentices, and such as leave school at an early age.

In 1834, owing to the increase of the primary schools, a school was opened for the benefit of those who were employed as monitors in that class of schools. This plan has been extended so as to embrace such pupils of the older class of the upper schools, as from their peculiar taste, industry and proficiency, could be recommended as monitors or teachers. While in these normal schools, they are denominated "cadets," and such as are properly qualified are promoted to the station of monitors, under pay, and so on to "passed monitors," from which class the assistant teachers are to be selected. These schools now embrace two hundred pupils, under the charge of nine teachers, and have already furnished the schools with a number of teachers.

In 1836, owing to a want of one or more high schools in the system, a number of scholarships in Columbia College and the University, with their preparatory schools, were opened by those having the management of these institutions, for such scholars of the public schools as were advanced to the limit of the instruction there provided. In 1841–2, similar privileges were opened in the Rutgers Female Institute, for a certain number of girls.

In 1842, an act passed the legislature which altered very essentially the system of public schools in the city of New York, by providing for the appointment of School Commissioners in the several wards, who together constitute a Board of Education.

In 1844, Mr. Josiah Holbrook's system of scientific exchanges and a plan of oral instruction in the natural sciences, were introduced into the schools of the Society. The teachers were authorized to allow the pupils to occupy a limited portion of time weekly in preparing specimens of writing, mapping and drawing, with a view to the exchanging of such specimens for those of other schools in this and other states. These exchanges of the results of mental and artistical labors on the part of the pupils, have excited a most healthful rivalry, greatly favorable to the development of their mental faculties, while its moral influences have been decidedly good. Not the least among its benefits has been the cultivating of a taste for the art of drawing, so necessary and useful a part of common school education, particularly in those pupils designed for mechanical pursuits. Connected with the operations here alluded to, was a plan of instruction by short oral lectures on the natural sciences, from objects collected and placed in the school cabinets by the pupils themselves, formed into associations or "school lyceums."

In 1847, the Free Academy was established by the Board, after an expression in its favor by a direct popular vote. Admission into the Academy is confined to those who have been pupils in the public schools. The range of instruction is equal, if not superior, to that of the best academies in the State.

In 1848, evening schools were established for such pupils as could not attend the public or ward schools by day.

In 1853, the schools and property of the Public School Society were transferred to the Board of Education, and the Society, after years of faithful, disinterested, and useful service, in building up an improved system of public instruction, was abolished.

NEW YORK SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

THE SOCIETY OF TEACHERS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK FOR BENEVOLENT AND LITERARY PURPOSES was formed prior to the fourth of April, 1811, on which day it was clothed with corporate powers by the Legislature of the State, and recognized as having the following officers, viz.:

ANDREW SMITH, *President.*
GEORGE IRONSIDE, *Vice-President.*
EDWARD SHEPHERD, *Treasurer.*
WILLIAM GRAY, *Secretary.*
WILLIAM PAYNE, ALBERT PICKET, and ISAAC GRIMSHAW, *Assistants.*

An Act to Incorporate the Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes. Passed April 4, 1811.

Whereas a number of the teachers of the city and county of New York have formed themselves into a Society or Association for the relief and benefit of decayed teachers and their families, the widows and children of deceased teachers, and for the discussion of literary subjects and the promotion of science among the members of the Society, under the name and title of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes;" and the said Society have, by their petition presented to the Legislature, prayed to be incorporated; *and whereas* the views of the said petitioners appear to be laudable and worthy of legislative patronage and assistance; therefore,

1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly*, That such persons as now are, or hereafter may, become members of the aforesaid Society or Association, shall be, and hereby are ordained, constituted, and appointed a body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, by the name and style of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York, for Benevolent and Literary Purposes;" and that by that name, they and their successors shall and may have succession, and shall be in law capable of sueing and being sued, pleading and being impleaded, defending and being defended in all courts and places whatsoever, in all manner of action and actions, suits, matters, complaints, and causes whatsoever; and that they and their successors may have and use a common seal, and may change and alter the same at their pleasure; and that they and their successors, by the name and style of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes," shall be capable in law of purchasing, holding, and conveying any real or personal estate for the use of the said incorporation, *Provided*, that the value of such real and personal estate shall not exceed at any time the sum of two thousand dollars per annum.

2. *And be it further enacted*, That for the better carrying into effect the objects of the said corporation, there shall be a standing committee consisting of seven members, whereof the President, Vice-President, Treasurer, and Secretary of the Society shall always be a part, who shall hold their offices for one year, or until others shall be elected in their room; and such elections shall be held at such times and places as the said corporation shall, by by-laws, from time to time appoint and direct, and that all the aforesaid officers shall be elected by

ballot, by a majority of the members present at such election; and that in case any vacancy or vacancies shall happen in any of the said offices by death, resignation, or otherwise, such vacancy or vacancies shall and may be filled up for the remainder of the year in which they shall respectively happen, by a special election for that purpose, to be held in the same manner as the said annual elections, at such times and places as shall be appointed by the by-laws of the said corporation.

3. *And be it further enacted*, That Andrew Smith shall be the first president, George Ironside the first vice-president, Edward Shepherd the first treasurer, William Gray the first secretary, William Payne, Albert Picket, and Isaac Grimshaw the first assistants, forming the first standing committee, to hold their offices respectively for one year, or until others shall be duly elected in their room.

4. *And be it further enacted*, That the said corporation, or their successors, shall have power from time to time to make and establish by-laws and to alter and amend the same as they from time to time shall judge proper, for appointing the times and places of electing officers, for the admission of new members of the said corporation, and the terms, conditions, and manner of such admission, and the amount of the sums which each member shall contribute to the funds of the corporation, and the time and manner of paying the same; and also for the management, disposition, and application of the property, estate, effects, and funds of the said corporation, for the purpose of carrying into effect the objects thereof, and for fixing the times and places of the meetings of the said corporation for the discussion of literary subjects and other purposes, for determining the nature of, and making by-laws for their library, for the manner of conducting the proceedings of their meetings, and touching the duties and conduct of the officers of the corporation, and for imposing penalties for breaking or violating any of the by-laws, and also such other matters as appertain to the business, end, and purposes for which the said corporation is by this act constituted, and for no other purposes whatsoever, *Provided always*, That such by-laws, and the penalties imposed for violating them, be not repugnant to the constitution and laws of the United States or of this State.

5. *And be it further enacted*, That when any member of the said corporation shall violate and break any of the by-laws so made as aforesaid, or shall become liable to any penalty imposed by any of the said by-laws, and shall neglect or refuse to pay the same, it shall and may be lawful in every such case for the said corporation to expel such member from the said corporation, *Provided always*, That no member shall be expelled otherwise than by the votes of at least three-fourths of all the members present at one of the stated meetings of the said corporation.

6. *And be it further enacted*, That every member expelled from the said corporation in the manner prescribed in the preceding section, shall thereafter be prevented from having or receiving any benefit, emolument, or advantage whatsoever from the funds, property, or estate of the said corporation; and that all payments and advances made by such member to the funds of the said corporation shall be forfeited to the same.

7. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall be and remain in full force and virtue for the term of fifteen years, and no longer: *Provided nevertheless*, That in case the aforesaid society shall at any time divert from or appropriate their or any part of their funds to any purpose or purposes whatsoever other than those intended and contemplated by this act, and shall thereof be convicted by due course of law, that thenceforth the said corporation shall cease, and the estate, real and personal, whereof it may then be seized and possessed, shall vest in the people of this State. *And provided further*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the Legislature, at any time in their discretion, within the period aforesaid, from altering or repealing this act.

8. *And be it further enacted*, That this act is hereby declared to be a public act, and that the same be construed in all courts and places favorably and benignly for every beneficial purpose therein contained.

This constitution seemed to have expired by nonuser, and was revived by act of the Legislature in 1818.

According to the *Academician* for October, 1818, at the annual election for officers, the following gentlemen were chosen for the year 1818:

President, ALBERT PICKET; *Vice-President*, JARED SLOCUM; *Treasurer*, WILLIAM FORREST; *Secretary*, RICHARD WIGGINS; *Standing Committee*, JOHN W. PICKET, J. HOXIE; *Corresponding Secretaries*, JOHN W. PICKET, AARON M. MERCHANT.

The President, Albert Picket, and T. T. Payne were appointed a committee to draw up a report for publication, detailing the objects of the Teachers' Society. This committee prepared a report, which was published in the *Academician* for October, 1818, and from which we make a few extracts, as throwing light on the condition and aims of the profession at that date:

The improvements in instruction which every day presents, have created a necessity for an association of professional men, by whom these improvements may be tested, embodied, and carried out into their practical applications. The perpetual progress of science, also, by adding to the objects of elementary instruction, requires a corresponding simplicity in the methods of communicating it, and calls for a combination of all the knowledge, ingenuity, and efforts of those who have made the business of education the occupation of their lives.

The aids that may be afforded in this pursuit to native invention and experience, are great and of easy acquisition: they are either such as develop principles in a simple and unbroken order, and accompany them with lucid demonstration, or such as follow out these principles to practical and useful results, and apply to them those mechanical facilities which fit them for the business of a school.

In making this allusion to the formation of a system, your Committee would not be understood to mean, that the members of the Society are to render themselves responsible to the pursuit of a concerted plan, and to receive the *shackles* of a method from the opinion of the majority. Nothing can be wider from the aim of an association which looks forward to the character to which we hope to entitle ourselves.

In the latter of these advantages the English excel; in the former, the systems of the French and the Germans are unquestionably superior. One of the earliest attempts, then, of this association, will be to embody into a system the excellencies of each, and to add to them whatever the intelligence and the observation of the American instructors may furnish.

The objects will simply be, by the aid of foreign correspondence, and communications with our sister states, to collect into a focus whatever information can be procured, and whatever improvements have been proposed on professional subjects; to offer them to the minds of the individual members of the Society; and after having passed through the prisms of their particular judgments, to let them be divided and appropriated as circumstances and disposition may determine. *As the intolerence of sect has been the foe of religion, so the bigotry of system would prove the bane of education.*

An object of primary importance in our plan will be to promote the success and diminish the fatigues of instruction by encouraging as far as possible a division of labor in our profession. An attempt will be made to give some gradation to our schools, with respect to the subjects of education they may embrace. In many of our institutions this has been partially accomplished by dividing the duties among associated instructors. This division has, as we believe, been attended with beneficial results wherever it has been attempted; and, indeed, the objects of elementary instruction multiply so fast upon our hands, that an expedient of this kind becomes not only useful, but essential; and it does not terminate in the comfort of the instructor, but produces incalculable benefits to society at large.

But the distribution of duties in the interior of schools is not all that we hope to effect. To create a succession of separate schools is an object of no less importance. The establishment of a high school, which should receive, after a preparatory examination, such of the pupils of our elementary schools as might

be intended for a collegiate course, will claim the serious attention of our society. The want of an intermediate institution of this nature has been experienced and confessed, and even attempted to be remedied by some of the strongest influence and highest talents of the community in which we live; but whether the circumstances under which this attempt was made were unpropitious, or the systems of *elementary education were not sufficiently matured* for it, or from any other causes for which we can not account, it did not meet with the success which it merited. The importance of such an institution, however, is unquestionable; the necessity of it is still felt; the aspect of things seems favorable to its commencement.

The Committee, after referring with strong expressions of anticipated success to the High School, which Dr. Griscom, "a professional gentleman of acknowledged competency and high reputation, who had retired from a life of successful instruction," was about to inaugurate after the plan of the High School at Edinburgh, set forth the benevolent purposes of the society:

Instances of men who have passed the best part of their lives in the business of instruction, who have worn out their whole strength in the labor which it imposes, and who have been left to drag out their old age in indigence are not rare among us. It is related of Anaxagoras, after he had devoted his existence to the discovery and dissemination of truth, and had numbered among his pupils the most distinguished men of the day, among whom was the powerful Pericles, that he was left to terminate his life by literal starvation. Pericles, feeling at that time the necessity of his counsels, was induced to inquire for him, and discovered him in the most emaciated and desolate condition. He conjured him to live, if not for his own sake, at least because he and his country had need of him. The strength of the old man just enabled him to admonish his pupil, that it was the duty of "those who needed a lamp, to take care that it should never be destitute of oil." Pericles is not singular in his liability to the charge of such ingratitude, nor is his the only age in which the lamps of science have expired for want of the means of nourishing their flame.

The last great purpose of the Teachers' Society is to vindicate for the occupation of its members "the name and character of a liberal profession."

It can not have escaped the notice of any observer of life—it certainly has not escaped the experience of any professional instructor, that the consideration in which his labors are generally held is far below their intrinsic dignity and the station they have a right to claim from their usefulness to society. This may result from many causes, which they can not, and from some which they can, remove. We have reason to hope much from the integrity and unanimity of efforts which this association is calculated to effect; from the improvement of character that the professional intelligence, which it is intended to disseminate, must produce; from the increased attention that prevails in our community on the subject of elementary education; and from the liberal and hearty acquiescence in our views which has been already shown by individuals eminent for their public spirit, as well as for their stations in society. These, as your committee would represent, are grounds enough for a rational expectation that the time is not far distant when the instructors of youth shall be welcomed as brethren by the members of the liberal professions. And why should they not? Setting aside all the examples that antiquity and the history of European literature supply, we find, even in our own country, that many of the very men who have occupied the teacher's desk, have been and are the oracles of our laws, the sages of our senate, and the leaders of our armies. There is nothing, then, in the nature of the duties of an instructor which can disqualify him for occupying an equal rank with men of the other liberal professions.

There are many other purposes of minor importance which time will develop, and which your committee do not consider to be the province of a preliminary report to embrace: They therefore, leave the subject in the hands of the society, confident that a zealous coöperation of its members in their common cause, will produce the most valuable results to themselves as individuals, and to the members of the community in which their duties are to be performed.

We are indebted mainly to a "History of all the Teachers' Associations ever established in the City of New York" by George Batchelor, (Professor of French,) a "study" read before the New York City "Teachers' Association," Mar. 23, 1861, for the details which follow

THE MATHEMATICAL CLUB.

The extinction of the Society of Teachers was followed in 1828 by the "Mathematical Club" of which Dr. Adrian of Columbia College was president, and all teachers of mathematical proclivity members—prominent amongst them were Shepherd Johnson and H. W. Browne—the former at the head of a popular private school, and the latter an assistant and afterwards principal in Public School No. 11, in Wooster Street. Mr. Browne was the first to introduce astronomy and algebra into the public schools. During his administration of the school, 1832, the large school was divided into classes, to which special teachers were assigned.

CITY TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

On the 15th of March, 1845, on the suggestion of the County Superintendent, (Dr. D. M. Reese,) a meeting was called in the hall of the Public School Society to consider the expediency of forming an association "to promote and extend the interests of popular education." Of this meeting William Belden was Chairman, and Joseph McKeen, Secretary. An association, designated in the first article of the Constitution as the "Teachers Institute of the city and county of New York," was formed, "in which any principal or assistant teacher, who is over twenty-one years of age," "in any of the schools of the Public School Society, in any Ward School, or any of the Corporate Schools of the city and county," was entitled to membership. The following officers were elected on the 29th of March: *President*, D. M. Reese; *Vice Presidents*, J. N. McElligott, T. Foulke, D. Patterson; *Cor. Sec'y.*, Joseph McKeen; *Rec. Sec'y.*, R. S. Jacobson; *Librarian & Treasurer*, L. B. Hardcastle. In the by-laws, it is provided; "to pay the necessary expenses of the Institute, each member on signing the Constitution is required to pay 25 cents, and a quarterly payment of 12½ cents;" "no school book shall receive the official recommendation of the Institute, unless reported on by a committee, and approved by the Institute in regular meeting;" "no religion or politics to be introduced in the debates." This Society continued in operation till 1848, having held forty meetings with sixty-three members on the roll.

WARD SCHOOL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Owing to the jealousy and other antagonism between the leaders of the Public School Society on one side, and the teachers of the Ward Schools and the representatives of the changes introduced into the school system of New York by John C. Spencer, and others—a number of teachers and active members of the Board of Education did not become members of the Teachers Institute, but in the autumn of 1845 organized a new society under the name of the "Ward School Teachers' Association of New York." Of this Association, Josiah Rich, Member of the Board of Education, was *President*, William Kennedy, *Rec. Sec'y.*, and E. McIlroy, *Treasurer*. Among its members were several prominent and influential teachers. Much of the time of this society was occupied with debates, essays, and lectures on the sectarian character of certain school books. It continued in operation till Feb., 1848.

CITY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

After various attempts by prominent members of the two Associations, who had at heart the avowed objects of each, and were weary of the apparent and real antagonism of both societies, the two were practically merged into one by the formation of a new association, with the name of "The Teachers' Association of the City and County of New York," on the 19th of February, 1848. The Preamble of the Constitution sets forth the purposes of the Association as follows:—

Whereas we regard the proper education of youth a subject of deep and general interest—one on which the future weal or woe of our common country depends, and by which her free institutions are to be sustained; and whereas the duty of preparing the future citizens of our Republic for stations of usefulness and honor is, in an important sense, placed in our hands as teachers of youth; a duty, the right discharge of which requires the united wisdom and the combined effort of all the friends of a sound and well-directed system of education:—

Therefore we, whose names are hereunto subscribed, for the purpose of mutual improvement in the art of teaching and the general advancement in the great cause in which we are engaged, and also for elevating the standard of our profession to that high position to which it is justly entitled, do unite ourselves together and adopt the following as the Constitution of the Association."

About sixty persons subscribed their names to the Constitution.

In 1849, the regular meetings were well attended, and the discussions animated, but the zeal of the few individuals who engineered the movements of the association began to flag in 1850, and although convenient rooms were furnished by the Board of Education in 1853, the attendance continued to diminish down to 1860, when an effort was made to infuse new interest.

The regular exercises of the Association consist of (1.) Propositions, Motions, Resolutions; (2.) Debates; (3.) Essays; (4.) Lectures; and (5.) Reports. Prof. Bachelor enlivens his interesting "study" of the records by pertinent annotations on the exercises, which are suited to other meridians as well as to that of New York, as will be seen by the following extracts.

(1.) *Propositions, Motions, Resolutions.*

After a series of amendments from one meeting to another, the Constitution and By-Laws were subjected to revision.

Discussion on the pronunciation of the word "wounds."

"The Debates on the Constitution and By-Laws did not fail to afford an ample opportunity for oratorical displays of all shades and complexions."

"The languor, that leads to an untimely suicide of Associations, is caused by the incessant discussion of futile questions. The great bore that pervades our American meetings is the cry of "Mr. President, I rise to a point of order!" "The gentleman may state his point of order," replies the President. That usually brings all kinds of disorder into the meetings."

Feb. 1850. Small attendance: Weather stormy.

May 3, 1851. Attendance steadily diminishing.

"The zeal of a few individuals sustains voluntary associations. As soon as it slackens, societies tumble down."

Jan. 26, 1856. Mr. Fanning proposed: "That a cordial invitation be extended to the female teachers of the city to coöperate with us in carrying forward the objects of the Association."

"We may remark, in this connection, that almost all the means have been suggested in turn to secure that precious coöperation; but it requires, besides a well-devised plan, great self-devotion to carry out any design which is not sure to yield its pile of almighty dollars."

Sept. 26, 1857. Colored teachers were admitted. One of them, Mr. Peterson, was elected librarian.

"At the date of Jan. 30, 1858, apathy was deplored, and from this moment until April, 1860, there was a gradual slumber extending itself, like a leaden cobweb, over the existence of the Association."

March 14, 1860. At an extemporized meeting of a few teachers, they all engaged to attend the meeting of this evening, at which a committee was selected to launch the Association into the live waters of experiment.

The Committee in their report remark: "Teachers have stood long enough dependent, isolated, in a position of apathy contiguous to a mutual unfriendly feeling. The hour has rung when they must be interdependent, reunited and intelligent friends. Let us rise erect above petty class and ward jealousies. Let the younger candidates to the warless laurels of an Arnold or a Page elbow, in our Society, their elder brother-teachers. Then may we hope that lasting concord and productive amity will crown our aspirations for the good, the true, and the beautiful. Forward, members of the Association. Go hand in hand, foot to foot, shoulder by shoulder! Let us acclaim together the amelioration of our race, which may, in a great measure, be wrought by our devoted labors."

(2.) *Debates.*

"I have transcribed all the questions of a permanent interest that have been submitted to discussion."

April 1, 1848. Should female assistants be employed in the male departments of our common schools.

"This is no longer a debatable question."

Sept. 16, 1848. That Phonotypy should supersede our present method of printing.

"Yes, by degrees; orthography has been approaching to a phonetic standard for several centuries past."

Dec. 2, 1838. "Some questions always preserve their freshness." That the introduction into some of our schools, of late years, of those branches of knowledge which pertain to an academical course, such as Latin, French, Drawing, Physiology, etc., is calculated to produce superficial rather than sound scholars.

"It was decided in the negative."

Dec. 8, 1849. "I am not convinced that, in large cities with a mixed population," greater progress would be made by the scholars, if the classes in our schools were composed partly of boys and partly of girls.

Jan. 19, 1850. What is the best method of promoting a healthful emulation in our schools?

"Well! a good, clear law—good, efficient officers—good, assiduous, devoted teachers."

July 6, 1850. Should we rely more upon a system of public instruction than upon private institutions, to promote the cause of education and secure the best interests of society.

"Any system of public instruction, however comprehensive, can not be expected to embrace within its folds all the varieties of intellectual wants and of religious culture that parents may wish to give their children."

Sept. 24, 1853. Ought female teachers to be placed on the same footing with male teachers in the matter of compensation where the services are the same?

"Absolute Right says: YES, and relative Fact says: No."

May 26, 1855. Is teaching a science?

"It seems teaching can not be ranked yet among the positive sciences. The mode employed in explaining the different subjects and making them comprehensible to the learner is essentially an art, depending upon the author and teacher in equal proportion."

Oct. 26, 1854. An enquiry on the best methods of securing proper physical exercise in our schools, bearing in mind the limited space for play-ground.

"I think the method—proposed by Dr. Lewis, of Boston—simple and joyful, preferable to those contortionary exercises by which Blondins and De Laves are produced. Give us rather mirth, loud laughter, variety and rapidity of motions, and abandon the *tours de force* to the Dr. Windships."

March 29, 1856. Can the principles, upon which the art of teaching and school discipline is founded, be embodied in a scientific form so as to be studied theoretically by those who are about to engage in the active duties of the school-room?

"We do not know what has been accomplished of the project to have published, for general use, a manual of theory and practice for teachers."

May 20, 1857. Has the Common School system of this city been benefited and improved proportionate to the increased expenditure?

"It has not, and shall not be as long as you see the duties divided and subdivided as they are now, with no man clothed with general and executive power."

(3.) *Essays.*

"An Essay, which is 'a composition intended to illustrate a particular subject,' is well adapted to the purposes of an association like your own."

May 20, 1848. Mr. Kiddle opened by an essay on "Self-Education," followed by Mr. Davies, on "Science," Mr. Hazen on "Grammar," Mr. Field on the "Law of Kindness."

Mr. Kiddle treated of "Intellectual refinement as an agent of civilization."

Mr. Avery described the "Technology of the school-room."

"The Humbugs of the Age" were denounced by Mr. Walsh.

Mr. Jenner wrote about "Money and Matrimony," whether from personal experience or observation, the compiler sayeth not.

The "Progress of the Age" had Mr. Bulkley for an historian or a prophet.

An important subject treated by Mr. Cruttenden; "The connection of the Sciences."

"We are apt, through our habits of teaching, to overlook this great fact of the connection of the sciences, and of the repetition of the principles of one into the other."

A timely dissertation coming shortly after the incorporation of the Association in 1855: "Corporations, their duties, etc., as applicable to this Association." It was written by W. T. Graff.

The "Teacher's Profession" was spoken of in exalted terms by Mr. Perkins.

"Our city school system as it is and as it should be;" from the pen of H. L. Stuart.

Mr. Dunshee unfolded "the three-fold nature of the teacher's calling."

W. M. Jelliffe gave his opinions on "Reading and Elocution."

"The importance of union among teachers" was urged by T. W. Valentine.

J. H. Fanning examined "Our public school system," and Mr. Kennard signalized some "Needed Reforms."

Some suggestions on "The method of teaching grammar" were offered by Mr. Holley.

T. F. Harrison gave his speculations on "The probable influence of physical geography of America upon its occupation by the aborigines." He spoke also of the "Influence of the Alleghanies on the future history of this country."

March 23, 1861. Mr. Owen gave some hints "On the method of teaching geography."

(4.) *Lectures.*

Lectures were given by Prof. Nichols of Glasgow on "Astronomy;" by J. Patterson on the "Education of the rising generation;" by Dr. Banning on the "Human voice," "The erect posture or human symmetry," "The lounging posture," "The lungs," "The physical training of children;" by S. S. Randall on "The teacher's work;" by Dr. J. H. Griscom on "Pure air and ventilation, especially to teachers and pupils;" by Prof. E. Loomis on "Plurality of Worlds;" by Rev. T. S. Cuyler on "Louis Philippe;" by D. B. Scott on "John Knox and Mary, Queen of Scots;" by H. Kiddle on "Roman Agrarianism;" by S. S. Sedgwick, on "Physical Education;" by Prof. Dodd, on "Mathematical Text Books;" by L. W. Clark on "English Grammar;" by J. W. Gerard, on "The Japanese;" by Rev. Dr. Bellows on "Education, its diversities and unity;" by J. T. Brady on "Duty of American Youth;" by Prof. Barton on "English Grammar;" by Dr. L. Reuben on "Teaching by discoveries;" by Rev. Dr. Thompson on "What to teach and how to teach it."

(5.) *Reports.*

"When a paper was read, or a report presented, one reads in the minutes: "Ordered on file," which signifies, I suppose, "Ordered away"—never to be seen again or heard any more. Would it not be proper that a synopsis of such documents be prepared by one of the Secretaries and written in a book kept for that purpose? How many valuable suggestions, how many precious gems of thought are forever lost to Associations in this country for want of such a precaution?"

The only Report of which Prof. Bachelor names the subject or gives extracts is that by a Committee appointed April 25, 1860, on a plan to resuscitate the Association, which we reproduce here as of value to all Teachers' Associations:—

But what are the means you propose to employ to resuscitate the body so many among yourselves have pronounced without soul, and so many outsiders declared to have bid an eternal adieu to societary life? We shall analyze first the objects presented in the preamble to the Constitution, and comment upon them.

1. *The mutual improvement of its members in the art of teaching.*

The Committee suggests class-exercises that would convey theoretical as well as practical information to the minds of the teachers present.

2. *The acquisition of knowledge.*

This object may be attained by a post-graduate course instituted by the Board of Education—by appealing to the best brains of the country to deliver lectures upon subjects that may pique our curiosity—finally, by aggregating the Association to any other of a like character that might concur with it in the diffusion of positive knowledge.

3. *The collection of a professional library and philosophical apparatus.*

Let us speak at first about the "Collection of a Professional Library." The means to accomplish this object are four-fold:

I. To create a general and a professional library, our Corresponding Secretary might address printed circulars to booksellers, publishers, authors, in the principal cities—to the Smithsonian Institute—to the city Boards of Education—to the departments of public instruction established in the different States—to Congress, for such papers as those relative to explorations, surveys, discoveries, and inventions, which every day modify our notions of geography and of other studies taught in the schools. The text-books can not take timely notice of such facts and results.

II. We might establish a system of inter-city and inter-state exchange of our double copies with other institutions and libraries in this country. Why not invite international exchange, in the same way, with Europe?

III. Would it not be advantageous to ally ourselves to such an institution as the Cooper Institute, where a large reading-room is at hand and a general library on a large scale is to be presently arrayed on the impatient shelves? The organization to be made, at an early day, of the "Associates of the Cooper Union for the advancement of science and art," offers a desirable opportunity to avail ourselves of the vast resources and of the central location of that noble monument.

IV. What we are not able to obtain through the preceding channels, we must consent to purchase with our own funds—a philosophical apparatus, for instance.

When the New York Board of Education engage to furnish the schools with libraries and apparatus, we should stand ready to apply for a proportionate share.

4. *Advancement of the general interests of Education.*

We might try to entertain communications with other Teachers' Associations to inquire into their system of schools. The district, city, state and federal assemblies of all the representatives of these direct agents of education would be in a position to make apposite suggestions that legislators would gladly accept.

5. *The establishment of a fund for the aid of necessitous members and their families.*

This last object of the series brings up the question whether this Association should be maintained exclusively to promote the intellectual and professional advancement of its members, or whether it should not assume also an eleemosynary character.

If we applied to the Legislature, they might be induced to grant an allocation devoted to superannuated teachers, those valiant chiefs who have performed wonders of courage and patience in the peaceful walks of the school-house, worthy veterans who have made repeated charges on Ignorance at the head of their juvenile battalions.

The Committee made various suggestions relative to a metropolitan district and to circulars to be addressed to the teachers of private and public schools, explanatory of the object, resources and terms of the society. They propose to narrow down the membership to actual teachers, in fact to restore the conditions that prevailed in the beginning. They add:—

"Who shall raise tenable objections against amusements that would link teachers, through their magnetic chain, to our Association. We should institute, under the auspices of the society, periodical and social fetes, such as concerts, banquets, strawberry festivals, and so forth. Then will teachers not only join your ranks, but you may rest assured they will never desert them."

To carry out these measures of reorganization the Committee advise the creation of an Executive Committee on Literary Exercises, invested with large powers and serious duties. It should consist of seven persons, including the Chairman of the Board of Trustees and the Corresponding Secretary as members ex-officio. They should have to prepare a synopsis of subjects to be discussed, and a list of papers to be read—to name the essayist—to solicit the ser-

vices of eminent lecturers—to establish a reading room and library—in fewer words, they should have to direct, under general and oft-renewed instructions, the whole movement of the Association. The Committee suggest that the seat of the Association be removed to the Cooper Institute.

The Executive Committee in a Report dated Dec. 15, 1860, remark:—

First, they cordially congratulate the Association upon the unmistakable evidences of renewed life which present themselves in our recent history.

Another most encouraging feature of our progress is the accession to our ranks of many young teachers as active members. May they prove to be but the forerunners of a phalanx of those whose ardent hopes, unchilled zeal and persevering energy shall be the fitting accompaniments to the calm purpose, cautious prudence and wise counsel of our more experienced and conservative members.

What a reproach to our professional spirit that, in this life-centre of a young continent, with advantages such as few enjoy, with every thing to insure to us as a body a weighty influence in all matters connected with education, with every interest, every sentiment of duty calling to us for united hearts and hands, so many of our profession among us yet stand aloof, unsympathizing, inactive, apparently apathetic spectators of the prodigious mental and physical activity that surrounds us.

But there are other and larger classes of persons whose presence is desirable. There are hundreds engaged in private schools, many of them gentlemen of high attainments, whose varied experiences have been mostly obtained without the trammels of a "system of instruction" or "course of study" imposed by other minds. For, however weighty the reasons which may make such a system a necessity in a plan of public instruction, it can not be denied that it may have a tendency to repress or distort the individuality of the teacher and to render those who labor under it, in their main views and plans, more or less stereotyped copies one of another. It is, therefore, a matter of great moment that systematic means should be used to induce these gentlemen to join us.

A still more important class of persons is as yet almost unknown in this Association. The ladies employed in teaching in this city are numbered by thousands. Among them are some of the acutest intellects, the noblest and bravest hearts, the most earnest and unselfish spirits that our profession can boast. Should such an accession be once secured, a greater and more beneficial change would be wrought in the attendance and spirit of our meetings than could result from any other single cause whatever.

A professional library is still a desideratum. Without this, the chief guarantee of our permanent vitality is wanting. Every other profession, and nearly every branch of mechanical industry, has long been gathering up its treasures of past and passing time. We are getting to have a distinctive literature. The growing importance of our function in society is attracting the earnest attention of the profoundest minds of our age.

If we do not love our profession and one another enough to do our allotted work, if we shrink from the many duties which press upon us—may better, braver, worthier men soon take our dishonored places, and do the great work which is the inevitable duty of the Teachers' Association of the city of New York.

UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

CONVENTION AND ASSOCIATION OF CLASSICAL TEACHERS.

As early as the 8th of October, 1852, a Convention of the Classical Teachers of Western New York was held in Canandaigua, for the purpose of considering the subjects of higher English and classical education. Subsequent meetings were held, attended by representatives of many of the colleges and academies of the state, at Rochester, Auburn, and Albany, the "*New York State Academic and Collegiate Association*" was formed, and discussions held and reports made upon various subjects, including the collegiate system of instruction, a course of study, the position and importance of academies, uniformity of pronunciation in the classics, &c. Among the prominent members of the Association were David Burbank, of Wyoming, Marcius Willson of Canandaigua, Prof. N. W. Benedict and Prof. Chester Dewey of Rochester, Rev. Dr. L. P. Hickok and Prof. Tayler Lewis, of Schenectady, L. S. Parsons, of Albany, Prof. A. Lathrop, &c., &c.

UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION.

In 1863, the Board of Regents of the University of the State, having the right of visitation and the general oversight of all the colleges and academies receiving assistance from the state, deemed it advisable to call a meeting of the officers of those institutions for the purpose of mutual consultation respecting the cause of education, especially in the higher departments, and Dr. Samuel B. Woolworth, Secretary of the Board, was prominently active in effecting the successful carrying out of this idea. The meeting was held at Albany, August 4th, 1863,—Chancellor J. V. L. Pruyn, President, and Samuel B. Woolworth, Secretary—and continued in session two days. Addresses and essays were delivered by S. P. Frost, of Claverack Academy, on the "*Occupation of rooms in Seminary Buildings by Students*;" by Prof. Tayler Lewis, on the "*True Idea of Liberal Education*;" by Prof. Edward North, on the "*Use of the Blackboard in teaching Latin and Greek*;" by Principal Rollo of the Oneida Seminary, on the "*Utility and*

Method of Education;" by principal Treadwell of the Delaware Literary Institute, upon the question "*Should Academies prepare Students for advanced classes in Colleges?*" by Hon. Henry Barnard, on "*Admission to public office, in especial to public schools, by open competitive examination;*" by J. S. Gardner, on the "*Relative Proportion between the Sciences and the Classics in Education;*" and by D. J. Pratt, on "*Language, the chief Educator, and noblest Liberal Art.*" The convention was also addressed by Hon. George W. Clinton, Gov. Horatio Seymour, and Hon. Gulian C. Verplanck. The society was organized under the title of THE UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, the objects of which were declared to be the following:—

1. To secure a better acquaintance among those engaged in the higher departments of instruction with each other and with the Regents.
2. To secure an interchange of opinions on the best methods of instruction in both Colleges and Academies, and as a consequence,
3. To advance the standard of Education throughout the State.
4. To adopt such common rules as may seem best fitted to promote the harmonious workings of the State system of Education.
5. To consult and coöperate with the Regents in devising and executing such plans of education as the advancing state of the population may demand.
6. To exert a direct influence upon the people and Legislature of the State, personally and through the press, so as to secure such an appreciation of a thorough system of education, together with such pecuniary aid and legislative enactments as will place the institutions represented here in a position worthy of the population and resources of the State.

Membership embraces,

1. The members of the Board of Regents.
2. All Instructors in Colleges, Normal Schools, Academies and higher departments of Public Schools that are subject to the visitation of the Regents.
3. The President, First Vice-President, and Recording and Corresponding Secretaries of the New York State Teachers' Association.

The Chancellor and Secretary of the Board of Regents were appointed to act severally as the President and Permanent Secretary of the Convocation, and it was resolved that its meetings should be held annually in the city of Albany, on the first Tuesday of August.

The first anniversary of the University Convocation was held at Albany, July 26th and 27th, 1864. The papers read were as follows:—

"The System and Method of Logical Analysis, applied to the Teaching of the English Language," by Prof. F. S. Jewell.

"The Importance of Drawing as a Branch of Collegiate Education," by Prof. J. A. Nichols.

"Examinations, as applied in England by the Government and the Universities," by Hon. Henry Barnard.

"The Public schools of Rochester, and their Examinations," by Prof. Edward Webster.

"The Examinations of the New York Free Academy," by Prof. A. Werner.

"A Defense of Rhetoric," by Prof. A. J. Upson.

"The Study of Language, Classic or Continental, as a Discipline to the Practical Intellect," by Prof. W. L'Amoreux.

"The Propriety and Duty of Teaching Physiology in Common Schools," by Prof. J. H. Griscom.

"Methods of Teaching, with special reference to what is called Memoriter Instruction," by Prof. Tayler Lewis.

"The just Place and Proportion of the Studies commonly comprised in a Sub-graduate Course of Instruction," by Prof. C. M. Nairne.

"A more thorough Preparation for College," by Prof. S. T. Frost.

The principal subject of discussion was that of examinations, and competitive examinations in particular. Resolutions were passed in favor of competitive examinations for admission to government insitutions, and a committee appointed to report at the next meeting upon the requisites for admission to colleges. The papers of Professors Jewell and Lewis were also discussed.

At the Second Anniversary of the Convocation, held at Albany, August 1st, 2d and 3d, 1865, the following papers were read:—

"Classical Training," by Prof. Benjamin Stanton and P. J. Williams.
"The Internal Organization of Academies," by M. McVicar.
"The Requisites of admission to College," by S. G. Williams.
"Female Education," by Pres. A. W. Cowles and Mrs. J. H. Willard.
"Method of Teaching Chemistry," by Prof. C. Avery.
"Statistics of Collegiate Education," by D. J. Pratt.
"Diplomas for Women," by A. Flack.
"The Science of Language," by Prof. E. S. Gallup.
"The Study of History," by Hon. Andrew T. White.
"Collegiate Education as a Preparation for Legal Studies," by Prof. E. Evans.
"Necessity and Means of Literary Culture in Academies," by O. Root, Jr.
"Abstract of Reports on the Decimal System of Weights and Measures," by Prof. R. G. Kimball.
"Elementary Instruction in the Classics," by N. W. Benedict.

In the Academy Section of the Convocation, papers were also read upon:—

"Instruction of Teachers' Classes," by M. Weed.
"English Grammar," by C. S. Halsey.
"Comparative Philology," by J. Wilson.
"Æsthetic Studies," by J. W. Bennett.

A general discussion was held in both sections upon the Requisites for admission to College, Examinations, &c.

STATE CONVENTIONS OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

THE School Act of May, 1841, for the state of New York, drawn up by the then Secretary of State and Superintendent of Schools, John C. Spencer, and passed by the nearly unanimous vote of the Legislature, provided among other measures for the appointment of County Superintendents of Common Schools. This provision continued in force for six years, and notwithstanding the opposition that it met with and which finally effected its repeal in Nov., 1847, proved in its operation to be one of the most important and beneficial means possible for the general improvement of the schools of the State.

Conventions of these officers were called annually by the State Superintendent for mutual consultation upon the interests of the schools and for discussion of principles of school management, which, as reported in the "District School Journal," are seen to have been as rich in able and interesting debate and doubtless as valuable in their results as any educational meetings that have been held in the State. The first convention was held at Utica, May 4th, 1842,—Jabez D. Hammond presiding—and was occupied by discussions upon Normal Schools, Academies, School Discipline, School Houses, and the Value of Common Schools, which were participated in by Messrs. G. B. Emerson, Prof. Alonzo Potter, Horace Mann, T. H. Gallaudet, M. H. Fitts, J. Henry, Jr., John Griscom, H. E. Rochester, E. J. Shumway, J. C. Tooker, and others. The subjects of Union Schools, District Libraries, Female Teachers and Professional Coöperation, were considered at less length.

At the second meeting, held at Albany, May 17th, 1843, Thomas F. King was president, and the most prominent objects of discussion were Corporal Punishment, and Moral Discipline, which together with the School Law, the Defects in the System of Instruction, Methods of Instruction, District Libraries, the Duty of Citizens, Text-books, Private Schools, Female Teachers, Vocal Music, School-houses, Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes, Voluntary Associations, and Irregularity of Attendance, were more or less fully discussed, by Messrs. S. S. Randall, W. L. Stone, Francis Dwight, Ira Mayhew, J. S. Denman, W. Wright, H. E. Rochester, G. D. Abbott, Alonzo Potter, F. B. Sprague, Samuel Young and others.

The Convention of May 14th, 1844, was held at Rochester—Henry E. Rochester, President. Addresses were here delivered by William B. Fowle upon the Use and Abuse of the Memory, and by Dr. Alonzo Potter, upon the Free School System of New York. The principal discussion was upon the question of Corporal Punishment, conducted by Rev. Mr. Van Ingen, Prof. Chester Dewey, W. B Fowle, S. S. Randall, Dr. Potter, J. Henry, Jr., and others, while

reports, followed by discussions, were made by L. M. Arnold upon Text-books; by A. S. Stevens, on Teachers' Institutes; by O. W. Randall, on Methods of Teaching; and upon Agriculture, Vocal Music, and Political Economy in Schools.

The Fourth Annual Convention was held April 23d, 1845, at Syracuse,—J. Henry, Jr., President. The subject of the Bible in Schools was discussed at length by Messrs. Alonzo Potter, Lyman Cobb, T. Lindsey, Dr. D. M. Reese, Rev. Wm. Castleton, &c. Remarks were made upon School Supervision, by Hon. N. S. Benton, State Superintendent, and by George B. Emerson, and addresses were delivered by Hon. Henry Barnard, Salem Town, and Mrs. Emma Willard. Much time was given to reports upon the condition of education in the several counties, and reports were also received from the different Standing Committees of the Convention, upon various subjects of educational interest.

The Fifth Annual Convention met at Albany, May 11th, 1846,—S. S. Randall, President. A large portion of the time of this meeting was devoted to the discussion of the Free School question, by Horace Mann, J. Henry, Jr., Prof. Thompson, H. V. Willard, Geo. W. Brown, and many others. Addresses were delivered by Horace Mann, upon Education; by Hon. Horace Eaton, of Vermont, on Physiology; by Hon. N. S. Benton, on the Duties of Superintendents; by Salem Town; by D. P. Page; and by A. F. Boyle, on Phonography. Numerous reports were also received, and as in the previous meetings, opportunity was given to authors and publishers to present the claims and explain the merits of new text-books and articles of school apparatus.

This was the last meeting held by the County Superintendents. The hostility that had long manifested itself against this form of School Supervision, due partly to political reasons, partly to the mode of appointment and compensation, partly perhaps to the jealousy of the teachers themselves, partly to that feeling of opposition that always exists to progress and improvement that involves expense and sacrifice, necessarily embarrassed their movements, abated their energy, and finally succeeded in the abolition of the office on the 13th of November, 1847. Mr. Randall in his "Historical Sketch of the Origin, Progress and Outline of the Common School System, 1850," remarks on this Act:—

> The effect of this measure upon the prosperity of the common school system was, in many essential respects, most disastrous. During a period of nearly forty years its progress had been uninterruptedly onward; and a succession of wise enactments had strengthened and matured its foundations and expanded its usefulness in every direction. The abolition of that feature, which, more, perhaps, than any other, constituted its distinguishing characteristic, and gave to it its peculiar symmetry and power, was the first retrograde step in its history. Its immediate consequences were felt in the comparative inefficiency and inutility of the local and general supervision of the schools—in the absence of any connecting link between the department and the several town and district officers and the inhabitants of the districts—in the discontinuance of a local appellate tribunal, where the numerous controversies constantly springing up, relative to the external arrangements of the various districts, might be equitably adjusted by an officer on the spot—and in the utter impossibility of obtaining with any accuracy, those statistical details in reference to the practical operation of the system, of so great value to the department, the legislature, and the public.

For the reasons suggested in the above extract, the office was practically restored in the Act of 1862 providing for the appointment of a Commissioner of Common Schools in each Assembly District, which makes the number of such officers, including City Superintendents, 126.

VIII. MASSACHUSETTS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

EARLY ASSOCIATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES.

THE earliest voluntary association for an educational purpose in Massachusetts, of which we have seen any record, was "a general meeting of the richer inhabitants" of the town of Boston, on the 22d of August, 1636, at which "the Gov. Henry Vane, Dep. Gov. J. Winthrop, Esq., and Richard Bellingham" subscribed each £10, and some forty others smaller sums ranging from thirty shillings to three shillings, "towards the maintenance of a free schoolmaster for the youth with us," which we suppose to have been the beginning of the Latin Grammar School of Boston. The next instance was in the neighboring town of Roxbury, in August, 1645, when sundry inhabitants, under the lead of that eminently good man and wise educator, Rev. John Eliot, "in consideration of their relligeous care of posteritie" and "how necessarie the education of theire children in Literature will be to fitt them for public service, both in Churche and Commonwealthe, in succeeding ages," "consented and agreed to erect a free schoole in the said Towne of Roxburie," and for that purpose "voluntarily" subjected their estates, "not only their houses, but their fields, orchards, gardens, outhouses, and homesteads," to an annual charge forever "for the advancement of learning and education of children." This was the origin of "the Grammar School in the easterly part of the town of Roxbury," to which Gov. Winthrop alludes in his Journal, under date of 1645, as the commencement of the "Free Schools" of Massachusetts—or, as we understand the term, of the Town Grammar Schools of that Commonwealth. To this "little nursery" of learning Dr. Cotton Mather applies the title of *Schola illustris*—because "Roxbury has afforded more scholars, first for the college and then for the public, than any town of its bigness, or, if I mistake not, of twice its bigness in all New England. From the spring of the school at Roxbury there have run a large number of the streams which have made glad this whole city of God."

These and similar associations, although afterwards incorporated

by law and merged in the general organization of the State, were examples of the necessity and of the power of associated effort to accomplish desirable educational results in advance of any legislative action and in preparation for such action. The schools for the Indians, for the Negroes, and the *Charity School* which was started in Boston prior to 1708, and to which Cotton Mather refers in his "*Funeral Sermon upon Mr. Ezekiel Cheever, the Ancient and Honorable Master of the Free School in Boston*," originated in this way, and so did nearly every new educational enterprise of a beneficent and reformatory character in all subsequent years.

Although not strictly Educational Associations in the sense in which we are now using this term, the "Massachusetts Bible Society," founded in 1811; the "American Education Society," organized in July, 1815; the "New England Tract Society," organized in May, 1814, and designated the "American Tract Society," in 1823; the "Massachusetts Sabbath-School Society," established in 1832, in their immense number of teachers and agents, and in their various and numerous publications disseminated through almost every family, and reaching directly and indirectly in one most important department of human culture, every child and youth and adult of the State, constitute agencies for the promotion of education of the most influential and decisive character.

The first successful effort to bring the teachers into an association for their own professional improvement and benefit was made by the teachers of Boston and vicinity, who, on the 22d of January, 1812, united themselves into a society under the name of "*The Associated Instructors of Youth in the Town of Boston and its Vicinity.*" This association continued in existence several years, holding its monthly and annual meetings, and some of the addresses delivered before it were published.* In 1835 the Society was revived or an attempt was made to recognize its continuation, in the organization of an Association of the Masters of the Grammar Schools, which came prominently before the public in the controversy of the "*Thirty-One Boston Teachers*," with the Hon. Horace Mann, in 1844–45, opened by a pamphlet of 144 pages, of "Remarks on the Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education."† The "Remarks" originated in the action of this Association, in which two of its members, William D. Swan, and Barnum Fields, took a prominent part. This controversy led to the peculiar

* For fuller account of this Society, see Barnard's Journal of Education, Vol. XV., p. 527.

† For a list of the publications made in those controversies, see "*Barnard's American Journal of Education*," Vol. V., pp. 651–652.

features of the "Reports of the Annual Visiting Committee" (subcommittee of the School Committee) "of the City of Boston," in 1845, which led to another controversy, mainly as to School Discipline, in which Mr. Mann became involved.

In the summer of 1826, efforts were made by individuals in Boston interested in the publication of the "American Journal of Education," to establish a "Society for the Improvement of Education," in Boston, with a corresponding committee in every large city in the United States. "Proposals" setting forth the objects of such an Association, drawn up by Prof. George Ticknor, were printed as a circular, and in the American Journal of Education for September of the same year. In this circular the "Society for the Public Good," in Holland, "The French Society of Education," "The British and Foreign School Society," and "The Home and Colonial Infant School Society," of England, were cited as examples of the method and results of the operations of such an Association in this country. William Russell was invited to become the agent of the Society. The time had not come for such an organization.

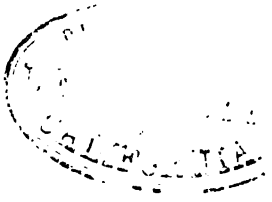
The Lyceum movement, commenced in 1826, while its avowed objects were more general, practically interested a large number of teachers, and brought up the condition of schools, the qualifications of teachers, and methods of instruction and discipline, for discussion in every county and almost every town in the State. As results of this activity, the *Boston Mechanics' Institute* was formed in 1827; the Boston *Infant School Society* in 1828; and the *Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge* in the same year; and State Educational Conventions were held in Boston in 1829 and 1830, which resulted in the organization of the *American Institute of Instruction* on the 21st of August, 1830, whose annual meetings have in a majority of cases been held within the State and have always been participated in and sustained by its prominent teachers. On the 17th of Sept., 1830, was formed the *Norfolk Association of Teachers*, and on the 3d of December, the *Essex County Teachers' Association*, which, by its annual and semi-annual meetings, has maintained an active and useful existence till the present time. We have record of an important convention of teachers at Andover in April, 1833, under the auspices of the "*School Agent's Society*," which continued in session nine days, occupied with lectures and discussions upon various practical questions relating to common school instruction. A similar convention of teachers was held in the following December at Wellfleet, and again in Dec., 1835, at Framingham. The next meeting of importance was one held at

Northampton by delegates from the four western counties of the State, February 15th, 1837, over which the Hon. Isaac C. Bates presided. A convention had also previously been held at Taunton, in January, which was addressed by Dr. W. E. Channing.

In this year, 1837, Hon. Horace Mann, as Secretary of the Board of Education, called conventions in the several counties, as required by law, which were accordingly held between the 28th of August and 15th of November, in every county except Suffolk. These conventions were generally very fully attended, were addressed by Mr. Mann, and were made the means by him of collecting information of the actual condition and efficiency of the common schools and other means of popular education. They also gave occasion for the formation of Teachers' Associations in Worcester, Middlesex, Bristol, and perhaps other counties. For several years these conventions were held by Mr. Mann and were considered one of the most important instruments for raising the standard of common school education. In his fifth report for 1842, however, he recommended such a change of the law as should provide for meetings to be held more frequently and for smaller sections of territory. In 1845, again, he advises a system of Teachers' Institutes as better adapted to improve the qualifications of teachers. Hitherto in the proceedings of conventions and associations in the State, so far as he knew, classes for mutual instruction had never been formed, nor had any organization into classes for drill and recitation ever been attempted. In the fall of that year, through the generous liberality of Hon. Edmund Dwight, he was enabled to make the first experiment of Teachers' Institutes in Massachusetts.

On the 25th of November, 1845, at a Convention of Practical Teachers which met at Worcester on the call of a committee appointed for this purpose by the Essex County Teachers' Association, a society called the *Massachusetts Teachers' Association* was formed "for the improvement of teachers and the advancement of popular education," of which "any practical male teacher of good moral character, within the State, can become a member, by signing the constitution and paying an admission fee of one dollar."

In 1861, an Association was formed, or rather arrangements were made, by which a delegation from all the incorporated Colleges of Massachusetts, together with delegates from the Colleges of Connecticut and Rhode Island, have since held an annual meeting at one of the institutions, for the informal discussion of subjects connected with the discipline and studies of their respective Colleges.





MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION had its immediate origin in the action of the Essex County Association, whose motives and object were set forth in the following circular, calling a State Convention of Teachers:—

SALEM, Nov. 3, 1845.

SIR—At a recent meeting of the "Essex County Teachers' Association," the undersigned were appointed a committee, for the purpose of calling a Convention of practical teachers, with a view to the organization of a State Association, the membership of which shall be limited to actual teachers. It is the opinion of the Association which we represent, that much good results from organized meetings of teachers, at which discussions of a truly practical nature are made promiuent. We feel that our Association, formed more than sixteen years ago, has, in a quiet and unobtrusive manner, done much for the cause of education in our country, and we are desirous that a State organization may be formed, which shall exert a similar and more extended influence. Such an Association will bring together teachers from various parts of the State, and among them will be men of sound views and large experience, who will be ready to impart of their abundance for the common good. In this way, whatever of excellence may exist in one part of the State will be diffused through other parts.

We believe that such an association will meet the hearty approval of all who are engaged in teaching, and especially of all who are employed in the instruction of public schools. We do, therefore, in accordance with the expressed wish of our County Association, most cordially and earnestly invite you to meet us in convention, at Brinley Hall, in Worcester, on Monday evening, 24th instant, at 6½ o'clock, then and there to consider the expediency of forming a State Association of Practical Teachers. The meeting will continue through the 25th inst.

Please to extend to teachers in your vicinity, an invitation to meet as above.

(Signed) Charles Northend, R. S. Howard, D. P Galloup, E. S. Stearns, Rufus Putnam:—*Com. of Essex County Teach. Assoc.*

The convention met at the time and place designated in the call. It consisted of teachers from various parts of the State, and was organized under the following officers:—Oliver Carlton, Salem, *President;* Thomas Sherwin, Boston; Ariel Parish, Springfield; Barnum Field, Boston; Warren Lazelle, Worcester; E. S. Stearns, Newburyport; and P. H. Sweetser, Charleston, *Vice-Presidents.* Samuel Swan, Boston, *Secretary.* Winslow Battles, Boston; and W. K. Vaill, Springfield, *Assistant Secretaries.* Messrs. Valentine, Bulkley, and Anthony, who had but recently been active in originating the N. Y. State Teachers' Association, were received as delegates from the Albany County Association, and addressed the meeting. On motion of Mr. Sweetser, the formation of a State Teachers' Association was resolved upon; on the following day a constitution was adopted, and in the afternoon of the same day the Convention dissolved and a meeting of "*The Association*" was immediately called.

THE FIRST ANNUAL SESSION of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association was held at Worcester, Nov. 25th 1845. Mr. Thomas

Sherwin, of Boston, was appointed Chairman, and Mr. George Allen, Jr., Secretary *pro tem.* The following were elected as permanent officers for the ensuing year:—

Oliver Carlton, Salem, *Pres.* Thomas Sherwin, Boston; D. P. Galloup, Salem; A. K. Hathaway, Medford; Levi Reed, Roxbury; Warren Lazelle, Worcester; G. F. Thayer, Boston; Emerson Davis, Westfield; Lucius Lyon, Shelburne Falls; James Ritchie, Duxbury; G. N. Walton, Martha's Vineyard; Joshua Bates, Jr., Boston; C. S. Pennel, Cabotville; Nelson Wheeler, Worcester; William Russell, Andover, *Vice-Pres.* Charles Northend, Salem, *Cor. Sec.;* Samuel Swan, Boston, *Rec. Sec.* J. A. Stearns, Boston, *Treas.* Ariel Parish, Springfield; S. S. Greene, Boston; E. S. Stearns, Newburyport; Thos. Cushing, Jr., Boston; Rufus Putnam, Salem; John Batchelder, Lynn; W. H. Wells, Andover; W. D. Swan, Boston; Elbridge Smith, Worcester; J. B. Batcheller, Marblehead; P. H. Sweetser, Charleston; J. P. Cowles, Ipswich, *Counselors.*

Committees were appointed to petition the Legislature for an act of incorporation and for pecuniary aid; and to report on the expediency of establishing a Teachers' Journal. Mr. Bates, of Dudley, presented a report on "*The means conducive to the highest desirable degree of intellectual education.*" The following resolutions were adopted:—

Offering the sympathy and coöperation of the Association to the State Association of New York;—disdaining any desire to contravene the operation of the American Institute of Instruction, or of any other literary association;—soliciting the assistance of female teachers by means of written communications to the Association;—expressing the opinion that the Bible, or selections from it, ought to be introduced as a text-book into both public and private schools;—and in respect of school-discipline, asserting it as "one of the highest duties of the profession, to exercise the wholesome restraints of disciplinary control, in whatever form the nature of the case may demand; and that all attempts to render the judicious use of the rod odious in the estimation of the public, tend to paralyze the free discretionary action of the teacher, to cramp his authority, and greatly abridge his influence and success."

Second Annual Session.—At Worcester, Nov. 23d and 24th, 1846. Oliver Carlton, President. Lectures were delivered by Elbridge Smith, on "*The Claims of Teaching to rank as a Profession;*" by Rev. J. P. Cowles, on "*The First Principles of School Government;*" by S. S. Greene, on "*Teaching Grammar;*" by Ariel Parish, on "*The Management of the School-room;*" and by Joseph Hale, of Boston, on "*Thorough Instruction.*" Discussions followed the lectures, upon the subjects that had been presented. The following resolutions were adopted:—

Whereas, An impression exists in certain portions of the community, that the Massachusetts Teachers' Association contemplated in its origin the purpose of neutralizing or opposing the influence of the Board of Education and still entertains hostile views toward that body, therefore,

Resolved, That if an expression or sentiment tending to produce such an impression has been uttered in any of our deliberations, we entirely disclaim it as having been expressed with any such hostile motive.

Resolved, That it is our great object to advance the cause of education in all its bearings on society—and that we rejoice in every effort on the part of other associations and individuals in coöperating in the same great work.

The officers of the last year were reëlected, with the substitution of Messrs. G. B. Emerson, Boston; William Seaver, Quincy.; H. K. Edson, Hadley; D. S. Rowe, Westfield; and Charles Hammond, Monson, *Vice Pres.;* and Daniel Mansfield, Cambridge, *Counselor*, in place of Messrs. Lazelle, Thayer, Davis, Walton, Russell, and Batchelder.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Springfield, Nov. 22d and 23d, 1847. Oliver Carlton, President. Lectures were delivered by S. W. Bates, on "*The Relation of Education to its Age;*" by Charles Hammond, on "*The Relation of the Common School System of New-England to Higher Seminaries;*" by Thomas Sherwin, on "*The Influence of Example in reference to Education;*" and by Nelson Wheeler, of Worcester, on "*The Teacher's Profession—its Inducements and means of Elevation*"—all which were made subjects of discussion before the Association. The subject of *Truancy* was referred to a committee, with power to bring it before the Legislature, if deemed expedient. The formation of Town Teachers' Associations was also recommended. Upon election of officers, Ariel Parish, of Springfield, was elected *Pres.;* C. C. Dame, Newburyport, *Rec. Sec.;* A. L. Ordway, Boston, *Treas.;* the remainder being reëlected, with the substitution of Messrs. W. W. Mitchell, Cabotville; and J. W. Upton, Greenfield, *Vice-Pres.;* and B. F. Tweed, Charleston; C. B. Bowers, Springfield; and S. W. Bates, Boston, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Lyon, Pennell, Hathaway, E. S. Stearns, J. A. Stearns, and Swan.

The proceedings of these three meetings, with the lectures, were afterwards published as Vol. I. of the "Transactions of the Mass. Teachers' Association." The proceedings of subsequent meetings were published in the "Massachusetts Teacher," which was commenced in January, 1848, as a semi-monthly journal of sixteen pages, under the direction and editorship of a committee of twelve members. The board of editors, during the first year, consisted of Messrs. Bates, Carlton, Northend, Parish, Pennell, Philbrick, Sherwin, Sweetser, Thayer, Tweed, Wells, and Emerson. In the second year of its publication it was changed to a monthly; it shortly became self-supporting, and was afterwards enlarged to forty-eight pages.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Salem, Nov. 27th and 28th, 1848. Ariel Parish, President. Lectures were delivered by W. D. Swan, of Boston, on "*Some of the Ways and Means of improving the Common School System;*" by C. C. Chase of Lowell, on "*Love*

of Business;" by Barnum Field, on "*The Requisites for Success in Teaching;*" and by W. G. Goldthwaite, of Westfield, on "*The Trials of a Good Teacher;*"—followed by discussions, as usual. The former officers were reëlected with the substitution of Messrs. B. Greenleaf, Bradford; Barnum Field; Rufus Putnam, Salem; Stephen Gilman, Medford; G. F. Thayer, and G. A. Walton, Lawrence; *Vice-Pres.;* C. B. Bowers, *Rec. Sec.;* and C. Northend, Salem; A. K. Hathaway, Medford; George Allen, Jr., Chelsea; C. S. Pennell and A. Farwell, Andover; *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Emerson, Ritchie, Bates, Seaver, Edson, Upton, Cushing, Smith, and Batcheller. The number of teachers in attendance was greater than at any previous meeting, and a general spirit of harmony and of earnest enthusiasm pervaded the exercises. The State Legislature, at its next session, voted an annual appropriation of $150 to the Association, for five years.

Fifth Annual Meeting.—At Worcester, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1849. Ariel Parish, President. Addresses were delivered by Joshua, Bates, Jr., on "*A Law to prevent Truancy and irregular Attendance;*" by Prof. Louis Agassiz, on "*The Study of Science in the Common School;*" by C. B. Bowers, on "*The Common School System of New England;*" by Charles Northend, on "*The Teacher's Field of Labor, and the kind of teachers needed;*" and by Barnas Sears, D. D., on "*The Best Mode of Professional Improvement in Teachers.*" Committees were appointed to call public attention, by means of the press, to the relations of the common school system to our social and civil organization; and to petition the General Court for a law upon the subject of truancy. The following officers were elected:—Thos. Sherwin, *Pres.;* Elbridge Smith, Cambridge, *Cor. Sec.;* W. C. Bradlee, Charlestown, *Rec. Sec.;* Joshua Bates, Jr., *Treas.;* also Messrs. L. Agassiz; George Newcomb, Quincy; Charles Barrows, Springfield; Caleb Emory, Charleston; E. S. Stearns, and C. C. Chase, *Vice-Pres.;* and G. F. Thayer and John Batchelder, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Reed, Gilman, Wheeler, Mitchell, Allen, and Farwell; the remainder continuing in office.

Sixth Annual Meeting.—At Worcester, Nov. 25th and 26th, 1850. Thomas Sherwin, President. Addresses were delivered by W. H. Wells, Newburyport, on "*The Importance of cultivating Self-reliance on the part of the Pupil;*" by Rev. Mr. Pierce, of W. Newton, on "*The Cause of Education in Europe;*" by C. S. Pennell, on "*The Motives and Means adopted by Teachers for Success;*" and by Rev. Horace James, of Wrentham, "*How to enlarge the Sphere,*

bring honor to the Profession, and increase the Usefulness of the Teacher. Resolutions were adopted—approving the action of the Legislature respecting truants and absentees from school, and promising a strong effort to carry the law into execution;—urging a material increase in the compensation of female teachers;—offering two prizes of $20 each to the female teachers of Massachusetts for essays upon given subjects;—and commendatory of the action of the people of New York on the subject of Free Schools. Discussions were held upon the subjects of the lectures and resolutions, and also upon the question "*How can Teachers influence the Public in regard to Popular Education.*" The previous officers were reëlected, with few exceptions. C. J. Capen, of Dedham, was chosen *Rec. Sec.;* J. A. Stearns, *Treas.;* S. W. King, of Lynn, *Vice-Pres.;* and Messrs. Ebenezer Hervey, New Bedford; Levi Reed, Roxbury; George Allen, Jr., Boston; and J. Lassell, Cambridge, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Hammond, Hathaway, Tweed, Swan, Bates, Thayer, and Batchelder.

Seventh Annual Meeting.—At Fitchburg, Nov. 24th and 25th, 1851. Thos. Sherwin, President. Lectures were delivered by D. B. Hagar, of W. Roxbury, on "*The Importance of cultivating the Reasoning Powers, and the Influence of schools therein;*" by E. S. Stearns, on "*The duty of Common School Teachers on subjects of divided opinion;*" by J. W. Stone, Boston, on "*The Phonetic System;*" and by Daniel Mansfield, of Cambridge, on "*The Management of the School.*" The subject of Phonetics received especial attention and was referred to a committee, to report at the next meeting. Prizes for essays were again offered, and a resolution was adopted, suggesting it to be the duty of teachers, by precept and example, to discourage the use of tobacco. On election of officers, W. H. Wells was chosen *Pres.*, and the remaining officers reëlected, with the substitution of Messrs. D. B. Hagar, and F. N. Blake, Barnstable; *Vice-Pres.*, and J. D. Philbrick, Boston; A. M. Gay, Charleston; and John Kneeland, Dorchester; *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Field, Sweetser, and Greene.

Eighth Annual Session.—At New Bedford, Nov. 23d and 24th, 1852. W. H. Wells, President. Lectures were delivered by Mr. Goldthwaite, of Greenfield, on "*Permanent Results in Teaching;*" by J. G. Hoyt, of Exeter, on "*The Indications of Progress in Popular Education;*" and by Prof. C. E. Felton, on "*The English Language as a Study in Common Schools.*" Majority and minority reports were presented by the Committee on Phonetics. Prize essays were read by M. P. Case, on "*The Self-Improvement of Teachers;*" and

by Mr. Sherwin, for Miss Margaret Bliss, of Springfield, on "*Moral and Religious Instruction in Schools.*" The former officers were reëlected, with Messrs. N. Tillinghast, Bridgewater; Jonathan Tenney, Pittsfield; and J. F. Emerson, New Bedford, *Vice-Pres.*, in place of Messrs. Galloup, Agassiz, and Barrows. The State Legislature, on petition, made this year a second appropriation of $300 annually to the Association, for five years.

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Boston, Nov. 21st and 22d, 1853. W. H. Wells, President. Lectures were delivered by Prof. C. E. Stowe, on "*The Use of the Bible in a Course of Elementary Instruction;*" by Mr. C. C. Chase, of Lowell, on "*The Kind of School Government required by our Free Institutions;*" and by Dr. Edward Beecher, on "*The Influence of the Emotions and Passions on Intellectual Culture and Development.*" J. D. Philbrick, of Connecticut, made an address on the schools of that State, and a discussion was also held upon "*The Self-reporting System of School Discipline.*" Josiah A. Stearns, Boston, was elected *Pres.;* B. W. Putnam, Boston, *Treas.;* Messrs. C. E. Bruce, Northfield; C. B. Metcalf, Worcester; Loring Lothrop, Boston, *Vice-Pres.*, and John Batchelder, Lynn; Charles Hammond, Groton; N. T. Allen, W. Newton; George Capron, Worcester; and B. F. Tweed, S. Reading, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Tillinghast, Tenney, Putnam, Philbrick, Reed, Pennell, and Northend. Daniel Mansfield, of Cambridge, presented an essay on "*Whispering,*" to which a prize was awarded.

TENTH ANNUAL SESSION.—At Northampton, Nov. 27th and 28th, 1854. Josiah A. Stearns, President. Lectures were delivered by Rev. J. P. Cowles, of Ipswich, on "*Fallacies in Education;*" by Charles Hammond, on "*The Relation of the Teacher to the Age;*" and by Rev. F. D. Huntington, Boston, on "*Unconscious Tuition.*" Discussions were held upon "*The relative Powers of the Male and Female Intellect;*" on "*Scholars assisting each other in their Studies;*" and "*School Superintendence.*" The latter subject was referred to a committee to report, and if considered expedient, to apply to the Legislature for a law providing for the appointment of State and County Boards of Examiners. J. A Stearns was reëlected *Pres.*, and the following new officers were elected:—J. E. Horr, Brookline, *Cor. Sec.;* Messrs. P. B. Strong, Springfield; W. L. Gage, Taunton; John Wilson, Dedham, *Vice-Pres.*, and J. A. Page, Boston; and E. Smith, Cambridge, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Bruce, Emerson, Rowe, N. T. Allen, and Lassell. Prizes for essays were awarded to Miss Almira Seymour, of Boston, Miss B. L. Adams, of Rockville, and Miss S. E. Wiggin, of Boston.



ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Lowell, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1855. J. A. Stearns, President. Lectures were delivered by Hon. G. S. Boutwell, on "*The Influence of Learning upon the Practical Affairs of Men;*" by Prof. B. F. Tweed, on "*The Claims of Teaching as a Profession;*" and by Rev. A. R. Pope, of Somerville, on "*The Causes of Failure in Teaching.*" Discussions were held upon the subjects of "*School Supervision,*" "*Penmanship,*" "*The Study of Physical Geography,*" and "*Study out of School,*" and the following resolutions were adopted:—

Recommending that School Committees be appointed as hitherto, but for a longer term of office, and that changes in these boards be gradual;—that in every city and town whose population will justify it, there should be appointed a Superintendent of Schools, who has had actual experience as a teacher;—that in case of small towns, several unite into one district for the sake of similar school supervision;—and that Boards of Examiners be appointed, over which the Superintendents shall preside;—also approving the propriety of assigning to pupils of a proper age and good health, lessons that shall require preparation, more or less, out of school hours.

Prizes were assigned to essays by Mrs. R. C. Mather, of S. Boston, and Daniel Mansfield, of Cambridge. It was voted that the "Teacher" be enlarged from thirty-two pages to forty-eight, and Prof. Alpheus Crosby was appointed Resident Editor.

D. B. Hagar, of W. Roxbury, was elected *Pres.* Messrs. P. G. Parmenter, Boston; Henry Williams, Jr., Boston; William Russell, Lancaster; Thomas Metcalf, W. Roxbury; and J. B. Holland, *Vice-Pres.*, and Messrs. J. B. Fairfield, Lawrence; J. S. Barrell, New Bedford; and A. P. Stone, Milbury, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Newcombe, Hagar, Blake, Emory, Stearns, Hervey, Capron, and Batchelder.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Charlestown, Nov. 24th and 25th, 1856. D. B. Hagar, President. Addresses were delivered by the President on "*Education in Massachusetts;*" by Dr. L. V. Bell, of Charlestown, on "*The Education of the Sensibilities;*" by A. P. Stone, of Plymouth, on "*Enthusiasm as an Element of Success in Teaching;*" and by Prof. Joseph Horn, of Amherst, on "*Memory as a Faculty of the Mind—its Nature and Laws.*" Essays were read and discussions held upon "*The Importance of the Modern Languages, and the best Modes of Teaching them;*" on "*School Examinations and the right Mode of Conducting them;*" and on "*The Means of interesting primary School Children.*"

Daniel B. Hagar was reëlected *Pres.* A. M. Gay, of Charlestown, was elected *Rec. Sec.* Messrs. Adiel Harvey, Plymouth; and B. F. Tweed, Somerville, *Vice-Pres.*, and C. J. Capron, Boston; W. Russell, W. E. Sheldon, E. Abingdon; S. J. Pike, Somerville; and S. S. Willson, Charlestown, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Gage, Mansfield, Smith, and Cowles.

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Fall River, Nov. 23d and 24th, 1857. D. B. Hagar, President. Lectures were delivered by Rev. W. R. Alger, of Boston, on "*The World as a School, and Humanity as the Pupils;*" by B. W. Putnam, of Boston, on "*The Responsibilities and Duties of Parents;*" and by H. B. Sprague, of Worcester, on "*The Nature and Importance of True Eloquence.*" Discussions were held upon "*Systems of Marking, Records, and Reports;*" "*The most Efficient Agencies of a Judicious School Government;*" and on "*The Expediency of Substituting a few very large Grammar Schools for the more numerous smaller Schools in our Cities and large Towns.*" Interesting reports of these discussions are given in the "Teacher." The following officers were elected:—D. B. Hagar, *Pres.* Thomas Sherwin, Benj. Greenleaf, C. C. Felton, Levi Dodge, W. E. Fuller, Marshall Conant, Sidney Brooks, W. Russell, Joseph Haven, Mark Hopkins, Charles Barrows, T. L. Griswold, N. G. Bonney, J. M. Bunker, *Vice-Pres.* A. M. Gay, *Rec. Sec.* J. E. Horr, *Cor. Sec.* B. W. Putnam, *Treas.* C. Hammond, John Kneeland, A. P. Stone, H. B. Sprague, S. J. Pike, George Allen, Jr., J. A. Page, J. S. Eaton, Jon. Kimball, W. E. Sheldon, C. C. Chase, Ariel Parish, *Counselors.*

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Worcester, Nov. 22d and 23d, 1858. Daniel B. Hagar, President. Addresses were delivered by the President on "*A Revision of the School Law;*" by Hon. N. P. Banks, on "*The Universal Education of the People as the Basis of Free Institutions;*" by F. A. Sawyer, of Boston, on *Physical, Moral and Intellectual Education;*" and by Jonathan Kimball, of Dorchester, on "*The Dangers to True Education, arising from too great a degree of Civilization.*" Discussions were held upon "*The Expediency of Abolishing the District System and placing the Schools of each Town in the hands of its School Committee;*" on "*Oral Instruction in the several Grades of Schools;*" and upon "*The Confinement of Children in Primary Schools.*" A. P. Stone, of Plymouth, was elected *Pres.* L. C. Grosvenor, Dorchester, *Rec. Sec.* G. N. Bigelow, Jon. Kimball, E. Hervey, A. H. Cornish, A. Wood, J. Marshall, J. N. Lincoln, James Tufts, Robert Morrison, *Vice-Pres.*, and J. A. Stearns, D. B. Hagar, A. M. Gay, and Cephas Brigham, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Felton, Dodge, Fuller, Conant, Brooks, Haven, Hopkins, Barrows, Bunker, Chase, Pike, and Stone, the remainder being reëlected.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Newburyport, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1859. A. P. Stone, President. Addresses were delivered by the President on "*Legislation for Education in Massachusetts;*"





A. P. Stone.

by John Kneeland, on "*The End of Teaching*;" by Rev. A. H. [illegible] of Jamaica Plain, on "*The Public Schools in New York*

Russell, on "*The Legal Recognition of the Teacher's Profession*;" and by J. D. Philbrick, on "*The best Method of Estimating the Percentage of Attendance*," which were followed by discussion, and the first subject was referred to a committee for farther consideration.



by John Kneeland, on "*The End of Teaching;*" by Rev. A. H. Quint, of Jamaica Plain, on "*The Public Schools in New York City;*" by Rev. A. B. Muzzey, of Newburyport, on "*Moral and Religious Education;*" by Rev. B. Fletcher, of Newburyport, on "*Schools in France, Switzerland, &c., and in Brazil;*" and by Elbridge Smith, of Norwich, Conn., on "*The Place which Christianity should occupy in Christian Education.*" Discussions were held upon "*The best Mode of Promoting Physical Culture in Schools;*" on "*The Kind and Extent of Moral Instruction contemplated by the Constitution and Statutes of Massachusetts;*" and on "*The Uses and Relations of Amusements to the Regular Work of the School.*" The former officers were reëlected, with the substitution of J. A. Page, Boston, *Treas.* B. G. Northrop, Saxonville; E. A. Hubbard, Easthampton; and C. C. Chase, Lowell, *Vice-Pres.*, and Charles Ansorge, Dorchester; and W. A. Stone, Woburn, *Coun.*, for Messrs. Wood, Marshall, Lincoln, Page, and Gay.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Concord, Nov. 26th and 27th, 1860. A. P. Stone, President. Lectures were delivered by Rev. B. G. Northrop, on "*The Relation of Mental Philosophy to Education;*" by R. W. Emerson, on "*A Correct Use of the English Language;*" by W. T. Adams, of Boston, on "*The Relation of Teacher and Scholar;*" and by Rev. S. R. Calthrop, of Marblehead, on "*Physical and Moral Education.*" Discussions were held on "*The Comparative Merits of Separate and Mixed Schools;*" on "*The best Method of Vocal Culture;*" on "*The Legal Recognition of the Teacher's Profession;*" and on "*The best Qualifications and Methods for Conducting Recitations.*" John Kneeland, of Roxbury, was elected *Pres.*, and the remaining officers were reëlected, with the substitution of Messrs. J. S. Cornish, N. Bedford; and Ariel Parish, *Vice-Pres.*, and Messrs. A. P. Stone, J. D. Philbrick, B. W. Putnam of Boston, and W. A. Putnam of S. Hadley, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Hervey, Tufts, Kneeland, Sprague, and Allen.

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Taunton, Nov. 18th and 19th, 1861. John Kneeland, President. Addresses were delivered by L. B. Monroe, of Boston, on "*Reading;*" by W. J. Rolfe, of Salem, on "*The Teacher and the Poet;*" by J. D. Philbrick, on "*Teaching Spelling;*" and by S. L. Crocker, of Boston, on "*War as a National Educator.*" Reports were presented by Prof. W. Russell, on "*The Legal Recognition of the Teacher's Profession;*" and by J. D. Philbrick, on "*The best Method of Estimating the Percentage of Attendance,*" which were followed by discussion, and the first subject was referred to a committee for farther consideration.

A discussion was also held on "*The Methods of Examining and Reporting Schools.*" John Kneeland was again elected *Pres.* T. D. Adams, of Weston, *Rec. Sec.* Messrs. G. C. Wilson, Taunton; A. G. Boyden, Bridgewater; J. W. Dickinson, Westfield, *Vice-Pres.*, and Ephraim Flint, of Lee, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs. Todd, Kimball, Hubbard, and Brigham.

Eighteenth Annual Meeting.—At Worcester, August 18th and 19th, 1862. John Kneeland, President. Lectures were delivered by J. K. Lombard, of Worcester, on "*The Pleasures of Teaching;*" by S. W. Mason, of Boston, on "*The Utility and Practicability of Gymnastics in Public Schools;*" by G. N. Bigelow, of Framingham, "*Something about Many Things;*" and by Gov. Andrew, on "*The Responsibilities of Teachers in Relation to the Present Crisis of our Country.*" W. E. Sheldon presented a report on "*The Legal Recognition of Teaching as a Profession.*" Discussions were held upon "*The Extent of the Teacher's Authority beyond School Hours;*" and on "*Gymnastics.*" A series of resolutions was adopted in relation to the questions at issue in the existing rebellion, the results to be sought and expected, the duties of teachers, and their confidence in the President and his advisers. W. E. Sheldon, of West Newton, was elected *Pres.;* other officers were reëlected with the substitution of J. S. Eaton, Andover, *Vice-Pres.*, and Messrs. J. Kneeland, H. R. Greene, Worcester; and C. P. Rugg, N. Bedford, *Coun.*, for Messrs. Morrison, Eaton, W. P. Stone, and Sheldon.

Nineteenth Annual Meeting.—At Boston, Nov. 23d and 24th, 1863. W. E. Sheldon, President. Lectures were delivered by Rev. Thomas Hill, D. D., on "*The Powers to be Improved by Training;*" and by J. D. Philbrick, on "*The Self-Education of the Teacher.*" Discussions were held on "*The Expediency of making Personal Criticisms upon Teachers in the School Reports;*" on "*Methods of Teaching Geography;*" on "*What Instruction in our Schools will serve to increase the Loyalty and Patriotism of the People?*" and on the question, "*What is the Next Step to be taken by Educators to secure the highest Interests of Education in the Commonwealth?*" These discussions were opened by D. B. Hagar, A. Bronson Alcott, T. D. Adams, and Hon. Emory Washburn. Former officers were reëlected, with few exceptions. G. B. Putnam was chosen *Rec. Sec.* M. C. Stebbins, Lancaster, *Cor. Sec.* A. J. Phipps, New Bedford, *Vice-Pres.;* and W. J. Rolfe, Cambridge; A. C. Perkins, Lawrence; H. C. Babcock, Somerville; and Jonathan Kimball, Dorchester, *Coun.*, in place of Messrs J. S. Cornish, Ansorge, Rugg, and B. W. Putnam.

TWENTIETH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Worcester, Nov. 21st and 22d, 1864. W. E. Sheldon, President. Lectures were delivered by H. R. Greene, of Worcester, on "*Moral Training in Schools;*" by Hon. Joseph White, on "*The Importance of an Acquaintance with the State and National Constitution and Laws;*" and by Hon. Emory Washburn, on "*The Duties, Responsibilities, and Encouragements of the Teacher's Profession.*" Discussions were held on "*Special Preparation in the Science of Teaching;*" on "*Methods of Teaching Latin;*" on "*Methods of Teaching Reading and Spelling;*" on "*Overworking Pupils in Public Schools;*" on "*The Principles of True Discipline and the best Methods of Securing it;*" and on the question "*Should the Teacher's Rights and Duties as a Citizen be restricted by Virtue of his Office;*" introduced by Prof. Crosby, Prof. Harkness, Hon. Levi Reed, and others. Somewhat extended reports of these able discussions are given in "The Teacher."

CONSTITUTION.

ART. I.—This Society shall be called the MASSACHUSETTS TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, and shall have for its objects the improvement of teachers, and the advancement of the interests of popular education.

ART. II.—Any practical male teacher, of good moral character, within this Commonwealth, may become a member of the Association, by signing this Constitution, and paying an admission fee of one dollar. All practical female teachers in this Commonwealth, who shall sign this Constitution, shall become honorary members of this Association.

ART. III.—Each member shall be furnished with a certificate of membership, having the seal of the Association and the signature of the Recording Secretary; and any member in good standing shall, at his own request, receive a certificate of honorable discharge.

ART. IV.—Ladies engaged in teaching shall be invited to attend the regular meetings of the Association.

ART. V.—The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at such place and time as the Directors may designate.

ART. VI.—The officers of the Association shall be a President, fourteen Vice-Presidents, a Recording and a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, and twelve Counselors, all of whom shall constitute a Board of Directors. These officers shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

ART. VII.—It shall be the duty of the President to preside at all meetings of the Association, provided, however, that in his absence, or at his request, one of the Vice-Presidents shall preside.

ART. VIII.—The Recording Secretary shall keep a record of the doings of the Association, and of the Directors, and shall notify all meetings.

ART. IX.—The Corresponding Secretary, subject to the order of the Directors, shall be the organ of communication with other societies and with individuals.

ART. X.—The Treasurer shall collect and receive all money for the Association, and shall present a written report of his receipts and disbursements at the annual meeting, and whenever required by the Board of Directors; he shall make no payment except by order of the Board.

ART. XI.—The Board of Directors shall have the general superintendence of the interests of the Association, with authority to devise and carry into execution such measures as will, in their opinion, promote its objects. They shall engage suitable persons to deliver addresses and lectures at the meetings of the Association, and make necessary arrangements for the accommodation of the annual and other meetings.

ART. XII.—The Constitution may be altered at any regular meeting, by a vote of two-thirds of the members present at said meeting and voting thereon, provided that the motion for amendment shall be made at a previous meeting.

OFFICERS FOR 1865.

President.—J. D. PHILBRICK.

Vice-Presidents.—WILLIAM RUSSELL, Lancaster; THOMAS SHERWIN, Boston; G. N. BIGELOW, Framingham; A. G. BOYDEN, Bridgewater; B. G. NORTHROP, Saxonville; A. J. PHIPPS, Lowell; J. W. DICKINSON, Westfield; C. C. CHASE, Lowell; DANIEL MANSFIELD, Cambridge; CHARLES HUTCHINS, Boston; J. S. EATON, Andover; ARIEL PARISH, Springfield; H. R. GREENE, Worcester; A. CROSBY, Salem.

Recording Secretary.—G. B. PUTNAM, Boston.

Corresponding Secretary.—EPHRAIM FLINT, Jr., Lynn.

Treasurer.—J. A. PAGE, Boston.

Counselors.—CHARLES HAMMOND, Monson; J. A. STEARNS, Boston; D. B. HAGAR, Jamaica Plain; W. J. ROLFE, Cambridge; JOHN KNEELAND, Roxbury; A. C. PERKINS, Lawrence; H. H. BABCOCK, Somerville; E. F. WOOD, Dorchester; W. E. SHELDON, Boston; J. P. AVERILL, Boston; J. F. CLAFLIN, Newton; A. K. SLADE, Fall River.

PRESIDENTS OF MASSACHUSETTS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.*

OLIVER CARLTON, A. M.

OLIVER CARLTON was born in Mount Vernon, New Hampshire; prepared for college at Phillips Academy, Andover; and graduated at Dartmouth in 1824. After acting as sub-master of Kimball Union Academy, and principal of Francestown Academy, in New Hampshire, he was for a year (1825–6) tutor of the Sophomore class in Dartmouth College. He was then teacher of a Young Ladies' School at Windsor, Vt.; was for three years principal of the Haverhill Academy, and of the Marblehead Academy for two years and a-half; was at the head of the Latin Grammar School of Salem for twenty-three years; then conducted a private school in Portsmouth, N. H., for three years and a-half, and is now teacher of a private school in Salem, Mass.

Mr. Carlton in every situation has been eminent as a scholar and teacher. He ranked among the first scholars in his class in college. As tutor he was a very efficient instructor. The long period of his service in the Salem Latin Grammar School was also one of distinguished success in classical instruction, and he is still laboring with great efficiency in the work in which he has become such a veteran.

ARIEL PARISH, A. M.

ARIEL PARISH, son of Jeremiah Parish, a lawyer of Coventry, Conn., was born July 20th, 1808. His early education was such as the best common schools of the time furnished, made more efficient by the interest and personal attention of his father, and though limited in its range yet serving as a solid foundation for after acquirements. For some years of his boyhood a portion of his time was spent in a cotton factory in which his father was interested, and after his father's removal to Tolland and appointment as clerk of the county courts he often assisted in copying and recording, and the knowledge thus gained of mechanics and machinery and of legal forms and processes proved one of the most practically useful parts of his education. His last two winters in the "public schools" were spent under a teacher of rare ability, Loren P. Waldo, who starting from an humble origin was emphatically a "self-educated" man and had commenced teaching at the early age of fourteen; but with a thorough knowledge of human nature, a good understanding of what best fits a boy for business life, ever encouraging and heartily sympathizing with his pupils in their plans of future action, always overflowing with vivacity, cheerful and entertaining in conversation, and never satisfied with any thing short of the

* Biographical sketches of Thomas Sherwin, LL. D., William H. Wells, D. B. Hagar, A. P. Stone, and J. D. Philbrick, are given in connection with the history of the American Institute of Instruction, of which they were also Presidents.

utmost thoroughness, he could not but be a most attractive and profitable instructor. He was afterwards a successful lawyer, member of Congress, Commissioner of Pensions at Washington, Commissioner of the School Fund of his native State, and for several years Associate Judge of the Superior Court.

Encouraged by Mr. Waldo in his early desires to become a teacher, at the age of seventeen he attempted his first school, in North Coventry, at a salary of eight dollars a month, and his success did much to determine his future course. After teaching the next winter in Ellington, he was induced by his father to enter the Lancasterian school of John E. Lovell in New Haven in order to learn the principles of that system, and after six weeks was for a considerable time left in sole charge of the school. He had afterwards charge of a monitorial school in Springfield for eighteen months, but convinced of his want of a more thorough preparation for his vocation, he returned to Tolland and entered upon a course of academical study. By invitation of Hon. John Hall, he soon after entered his famous boarding-school at Ellington as teacher of penmanship and some English branches, at the same time pursuing his classical studies under Rev. Luther Wright, late principal of the Williston Academy at Easthampton. In 1831 he entered Yale College and sustained himself through the course by his own exertions. After graduation he was at the head of the academy at Berlin for about two years and a-half, and then of Westfield Academy for six years, as successor of Rev. Emerson Davis, who had been its principal some twenty years. In 1844 he was invited to take charge of the Springfield High School, which place he still retains, though often urged to accept more prominent positions.* Under his care the institution has risen from a mere English school of very low classification and attainment, to a thoroughly organized school of high grade, with about 180 pupils, of whom over 100 study Greek, Latin and French.

Mr. Parish was among the originators of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association, and was elected its second President in 1847 and 1848. He was actively interested in the establishment of its organ, the "Massachusetts Teacher," and was for several years one of its Board of Editors. He was also always active in creating and sustaining the interest of the teachers of Springfield and of Hampden county in their respective associations, and has lectured and participated in the discussion of educational topics whenever occasion has offered during the last twenty-one years, since the first impulse given by Horace Mann to the cause of education in the State. A lecture "*On the Management of the School-room*" was published and quite widely circulated. In 1855 Mr. Parish was appointed by the governor a member of the State Board of Education for eight years, as successor to Rev. Emerson Davis.

JOSIAH A. STEARNS, A. M.

JOSIAH ATHERTON STEARNS, son of the late Rev. Samuel Stearns, of Bedford, Mass., was not only favored with especial opportunities of preparation, both at home and elsewhere, for what has proved to be his lifework, but enjoyed while connected with Phillips Academy, in Andover, the special instruction and influence of Rev. S. R. Hall, the distinguished pioneer of Normal Schools in America. Having taught school for several winters while engaged in prose-

* Mr. Parish has just (Sept., 1865) accepted the appointment of Superintendent of the Public Schools in New Haven, Conn.





Wm. C. Bilderback

cuting his private studies, after a short interval in other business he received in 1840 the appointment of principal master of the West Ward School in Pitts-



cuting his private studies, after a short interval in other business he received in 1840 the appointment of principal master of the West Ward School in Pittsburg, Penn., with the offer of a tempting salary, but at the urgent request of some influential committee-men in Boston, accepted instead an ushership in the Adams' School. In 1843, from more than forty candidates for the office, he was elected principal grammar master of the Mather, now Lawrence, School, and has held the position sufficiently long to be teaching now the children of former pupils, while under his care the school has outgrown itself and received a new and costly edifice. During his period of service in Boston, more than twelve thousand pupils, of both sexes, have been more or less directly under his instruction.

Mr. Stearns has participated actively in the educational movements of the day, and as a safeguard against isolation and mere routine-teaching, he has frequently visited schools in all parts of the country and in the British Provinces, and taken an active interest in various scientific and other societies. As early as 1832 he became member of the American Institute of Instruction, he was elected President of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association for 1853 and 1854, and his administration was particularly marked by the general accession to its membership of professors and teachers from the colleges and academies of the State, in response to his personal solicitations. He has also been member of the National Teachers' Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the N. E. Historical and Genealogical Society, and other kindred institutions. In 1854 he received from Harvard University the honorary degree of Master of Arts.

WILLIAM E. SHELDON, A. M.

WILLIAM E. SHELDON was born Oct. 22d, 1832, in Dorset, Vt., the son of a respectable farmer. His mind early turned to college, and to teaching as a profession, and after much importunity his father granted his request, gave him "his time," and gave him permission to "work his passage" through academy and college. In 1845 he entered Burr Seminary in Manchester, Vt., and struggled on for four years, teaching school in winter, and then being prevented by ill health from pursuing his studies he taught for a time near Richmond, Va. In 1852 he entered Middlebury College, but left it again the next year to accept a school in Abingdon, Mass., where he taught with much success, still continuing his college studies. Elected a member of the school committee of that town, he had much to do with the grading and general improvement of the schools which occurred during his administration. In 1857 he became principal of the High and Grammar School in Newton, and in June, 1864, was chosen Master of the Hancock School in Boston.

Mr. Sheldon early embraced enlarged views of education and of the wide scope of the teacher's duties. He became member of both his County and the State Teachers' Associations, was President of the Plymouth and of the Middlesex County Associations, was elected President of the State Association in 1862, for two years, was Secretary of the National Teachers' Association at its first meeting in 1857, and again in 1865, and has held several offices in the American Institute of Instruction. For the last five years he has been connected with the "Massachusetts Teacher," and for three years one of the resident editors. Mr. Sheldon has thus identified himself with his profession, laboring earnestly and in many ways for the general improvement of schools and

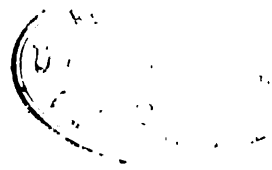
teachers. He is also member of the Boston Natural History Society and of the Institute of Technology. The honorary degree of A. M. was conferred upon him in 1861 by Middlebury College.

JOHN KNEELAND.

JOHN KNEELAND was born in Plymouth, Mass., on the 25th of November, 1821. After attending the district-school till he was eleven years of age, he commenced working in a nail factory, which was stopped by the financial crisis of 1837, when he resumed his studies in the Town High School, having made diligent use of his evening and leisure hours during his apprenticeship so as to keep abreast of boys of the same age who were regularly at school. By the advice of his teacher, (Mr. J. M. Stoddard,) in 1838 he engaged as teacher of a district-school, which he taught for three winters, working and studying during the balance of each year. In 1841 he entered the State Normal School at Bridgewater. Here, under the instruction of Mr. Tillinghast, he learned how to study, and mastered thoroughly what he undertook to learn, and afterwards to teach. To Mr. Stoddard and Mr. Tillinghast, Mr. Kneeland is ever ready to acknowledge his obligations for whatever success he has had as a teacher—which he has regarded as his vocation since 1838—first in a common district-school in Plymouth woods, at $16 per month and "board round," afterwards in an annual school in Hingham, at $350 per annum, and since 1854 in the Washington school, at a salary of $1,800, which he has reached by successive movements as the reward of continued and increasing success.

Keeping in view what he conceives to be the great object of education, he has endeavored to develop the intellectual and moral powers of his scholars, rather than merely to teach facts. In discipline he has relied more upon moral motives than upon coercion. He has tried to keep in sympathy with his pupils; to carry a happy and cheerful spirit into the school, and to foster such in them. Therefore the relation between him and them has always been pleasant and kindly. Governing has been kept in great measure out of sight, and scholars have been allowed all the liberty possible, consistent with the individual and general good.

He has taken an active part in County, State, and other Associations for the advancement of the interests of education; has acted as monthly editor of the Massachusetts Teacher, and for two or three years as one of the Resident Editors. Of the Massachusetts State Teachers' Association he was President in 1862. He has always had great interest in Sunday-schools, and wherever he has lived has been connected with them either as teacher or superintendent, and at all times and every where he has had especial interest in whatever related to the improvement of the young and the welfare of society.



BOSTON ASSOCIATED INSTRUCTORS OF YOUTH.

JANUARY 22, 1812.

THE first Association of Teachers in Boston, of which we have any information, was formed on the 22d of January, 1812, with the following Preamble and Constitution:

PREAMBLE.

WE, the undersigned, Instructors of Youth, aware that, by the combined exercise of our talents and industry, and by the interchange of friendly sentiments and services, we may be enabled to extend our knowledge, promote our usefulness, and enlarge the circle of our social and intellectual pleasures, have united ourselves into a fraternity, entitled "THE ASSOCIATED INSTRUCTORS OF YOUTH IN THE TOWN OF BOSTON AND ITS VICINITY," for literary and charitable purposes; hoping that, by free inquiry and candid investigation, by temperate discussion and Christian compromise of our paternal and local prejudices of education, by soliciting and cultivating a liberal and friendly correspondence with other similar societies and respectable individuals, engaged in the same arduous and useful employment with ourselves, to promote the interests of education generally, especially of the Youth under our care, and what is particularly desirable, a more uniform system and mode of instruction in our schools and academies; and we hereby solemly pledge ourselves faithfully to observe, and be governed by the principles and articles of the following

CONSTITUTION.

1. The Association shall consist of Members chosen from the public and private Instructors of Youth in the Town of Boston and its vicinity, extending to the Preceptors of Academies through the Commonwealth. The election of Honorary Members may extend to all literary characters throughout the Republic of Letters.

2. The meetings of the Association shall be monthly in the Town of Boston, unless prevented by some public or national calamity, on the Wednesday preceding the full moon, except the Anniversary of the Society, which shall be in the month of August, on the day of the public Exhibition of the Junior Class in Harvard University; at six o'clock, P. M., from September to April; at seven o'clock from April to September, except in the month of August; at which hours the Secretary shall call over a list of all the Members, and every member tardy shall be fined twenty-five cents; if absent the whole evening, fifty cents, unless detained by personal or domestic sickness, or absent from Boston on a journey. All Honorary Members, not having the right of suffrage, shall be exempted from all pecuniary requisition whatever. If any Member leave the meeting before the same is adjourned, without first obtaining permission from the President, and settling with the Secretary, he shall pay one dollar.

3. The Government of the Association shall be vested in a President, Vice-President, a Recording Secretary, Treasurer, Corresponding Secretary, and five Counselors, to be chosen by ballot annually in the month of August, whose duty shall be to superintend the affairs of the Association in general.

4. The duty of the President shall be to preserve order, state all questions to be determined by the Society, and in case of no decision, he shall give a casting vote; to determine the right in turn of each Member to speak on any subject in

debate; to call to order any Member speaking, when digressing from the subject under discussion. Every Member, having anything to propose to the Society, shall rise and address himself to the President; nor shall be allowed by the President to speak more than once upon the same subject, unless by way of explanation, until each Member has had an opportunity to speak on the subject. If any Member be inattentive to the subject in debate, it shall be the duty of the President to call him to order; and for every disobedience of such order, he shall pay one dollar; if still disobedient, he shall be liable to reproof from the President, and an additional pecuniary fine. It shall also be the duty of the President to announce from the chair the Member whose turn it shall be to perform a literary, moral, or religious exercise at the succeeding meeting, as prescribed in article XX.; to sign drafts upon the Treasurer for such sum or sums, as may be, by a vote of the Society, appropriated for any purpose.

5. The duty of the Vice-President shall be to preside at any meeting, during the absence of the President; to keep a check-book of all moneys received by the Society; and in every respect perform the same duties, as would devolve upon the President were he present.

6. It shall be the duty of the Recording Secretary, who shall be, ex-officio, Librarian, to keep an accurate record of all the business transacted in the Society; to demand and receive all dues from the Members, and pay the same to the Treasurer, taking his receipt; to note every member who shall be tardy or absent; to notify every Member of any meeting, at least two days previously to the time of meeting, by a printed ticket, filled up and signed by him, noting candidates for admission; also any Member of his arrearages, and all important business; to call special meetings, on the application of any five Members communicated to him in writing; and all Members, tardy or absent, shall be fined as from other meetings. It shall be the duty of the Secretary, at each meeting, to read the minutes of the preceding, and refer to any part of the records, when requested by a Member. The Secretary shall receive for his annual services fourteen dollars; shall forfeit and pay one dollar for neglecting to keep correct records; one dollar for not notifying the Members; one dollar for tardiness, and two dollars for absence, without an excuse deemed sufficient by the Government.

7. It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive the moneys collected for fines, taxes and assessments, or which may be given for the use of the Society; to keep a just account of the same, and make report, quarterly, to the Counselors, of the state of the funds and property belonging to the Association; which statement shall be deposited with the papers of the Society. The Treasurer shall not pay any money belonging to the Society to any person, except for defraying the contingent expenses, until such person has produced an order signed by the President. And the Treasurer shall account for all the moneys of the Association, and give such bonds as the Government shall require. For the neglect of each particular duty the Treasurer shall pay one dollar.

8. The duty of the Corresponding Secretary shall be to open and conduct a correspondence with such literary societies and individuals as may be thought useful to this Institution, under the control of the Government; to exhibit all such communications as he may at any time have received from any correspondent; to keep correct copies, together with such replies, as the Society may think proper to be made and communicated.

9. The duty of the Counselors shall be to assist the President and other officers of the Government with their advice; to aid in the ordinary management of the affairs of the Association; audit and adjust the several accounts of the Secretary, Treasurer and Librarian, and report to the Society at their annual meeting.

10. The Government shall be authorized to make such by-laws for regulating the Society and Library, as they may think necessary, which, if approved by the Society, shall be valid and equally as binding as the Constitution.

11. Instructors, wishing to become Members of the Association, shall stand proposed at least one month previous to being balloted for; if one dissentient only appear against the candidate, he shall state his reasons to the Society, who shall judge whether they are of sufficient validity to reject the candidate; should two dissentients, at any trial, appear, the election shall be suspended for

one month; at the expiration of which time a second trial shall be made, when, if two dissenting votes appear, the candidate shall be considered as rejected. All parts of the discussion respecting the character and qualifications of candidates shall be kept secret; nor shall any Member divulge any part of the same, under the penalty of forfeiting his Membership.

12. Each Member, at the time of his admission, shall pay to the Treasurer, for the use of the Society, five dollars; and every Member shall pay four dollars, annually, in quarterly payments, except in cases otherwise provided; also, by signing this Constitution, he shall bind and oblige himself to receive into his school at least one indigent child of a deceased Instructor, as a scholar, to be educated free from the expense of tuition; and in case such scholar exhibit marks of genius and other promising good qualities, it shall be the duty of such Instructor to give information of the fact to the Society, that proper measures may be adopted for a more public education, either by the Association, or the patronage of literary characters, to whom the Society shall think proper to recommend him.

13. Any Member, resident in Boston, who shall absent himself from three successive meetings, without an excuse deemed satisfactory to the Society; or who shall neglect to settle his dues with the Secretary, three months' notice of the demand having been given, shall no longer be considered as a Member; nor shall he be re-admitted, but by the customary mode of admission.

14. If any Member, at any meeting, shall so far forget the respect due to the Officers and Members, as to disturb the order and harmony of the Society, such Member, so misdemeaning himself, shall be liable to a pecuniary fine or expulsion, according to the aggravation of the offense. And if any Member, by any secret or open manner, shall attempt to deprive any brother associate of his good name, or speak disrespectfully of his professional talents, such Member shall be considered as unworthy the confidence of the associated brethren, and be liable to expulsion.

15. A majority of all the Members resident in Boston shall constitute a quorum for transacting business. All questions relating to the business of the Association shall be finally decided by a majority of votes of the Members present, except in cases otherwise provided, the President having the casting vote. Questions of order shall always be immediately decided as they arise. No person shall be invited to any meeting, who is not a member, unless first having obtained permission from the President and Counselors; nor shall any Member be expelled, unless by an unanimous vote of all the Members present at a regular meeting. Flagrant instances of immoral conduct shall be sufficient to reject a candidate, or expel a Member.

16. Provided any Member be reduced in his circumstances by misfortune, the Society shall afford him such assistance as a majority shall think proper; and in case any brother is sick, it shall be the duty of the officers of the Government, or some one of them, to visit him, and immediately to provide a substitute to take charge of his school during his sickness, for such periods as shall be found convenient, who shall derive his compensation from the same source as that of the Instructor. And in case of the death of any Member who may be in necessitous circumstances, to superintend his funeral; and all the expenses shall be defrayed from the funds. The widow and children of any deceased Member shall be entitled to the same charitable assistance, during her remaining his widow, and their minority.

17. When the money in the funds shall amount to twenty dollars, or more, and is under one hundred dollars, it may be loaned on interest to any person applying for the same, at the discretion of the Government, a preference being given to Members of the Society. When the sum shall amount to one hundred dollars, or upwards, the same may be loaned for any term of time not exceeding one year.

18. All the money which shall accrue to the Society by fines, taxes and assessments, after deducting necessary expenses, shall be appropriated to literary and benevolent purposes.

19. Any Member who may exchange his professional employment for any other calling, or may suspend it for any term of time, not exceeding five years, due notice thereof having been given in writing to the President and Secretary,

shall be considered as an Honorary Member, if requested, and upon his returning to his employment as an Instructor of Youth, shall be re-admitted a full Member, free from the expense of admission.

20. At the opening of every meeting, an original or selected essay, dissertation, conference, or forensic disputation, on some literary, moral, or religious subject, shall be read or exhibited by one or more Members of the Association, beginning and proceeding in alphabetical order, till each Member has performed. Any Member neglecting to perform as announced by the President from the chair, or to provide a substitute, shall pay one dollar for each and every meeting, until the same shall be performed.

21. A Library shall be formed, consisting of such books only as relate to the arts and sciences, together with such maps, charts and philosophical apparatus, as may be deemed useful and necessary; to be increased and supported by the appropriation of such sum or sums, as the Society may think proper, except donations, designed for those particular objects; in such case, the whole sum given shall be appropriated agreeably to the intention of the donor. The Library shall be regulated by such by-laws as may, from time to time, be enacted by the Association.

22. Agreeably to the uniform custom of all associated bodies, the Anniversary of this Institution shall be celebrated in temperate festivity, and such literary and religious performances as may be prescribed by the Government. The particular time, place and mode of spending the day, to be assigned by the Government, and notice of the same be given to the Society at one of its monthly meetings, at least three months previous to each Anniversary. No other entertainment whatever shall, at any meeting, be provided by any Member, under the penalty of forfeiting his Membership.

23. No alteration, amendment or new Article, shall be made to this Constitution, without the consent of at least two-thirds of the Members present; there having been one month's previous notice given of such alteration or amendment.

On the 19th of August, 1813, the first Anniversary was celebrated at Boston, on which occasion John Lathrop, Jr., Preceptor of the Salem Street Academy, delivered an Address. Among the invited guests, as appears from the printed copy of the Address, were "the Selectmen, School Committee and other literary characters." The burden of the discourse was the dignity and discouragements of the profession—as will be seen by the following extracts:

The Hebrews were always diligent to study and teach the Mosaic Law. Their learned men pretend that there were schools before the deluge. Adam is by them placed at the head of the dynasty of schoolmasters—then followed Enoch and Noah. Melchisedec was master of a seminary at Kajrath-sepher, in Palestine. Abraham, who had been instructed by Heber, taught in Chaldea and Egypt;—from him the Egyptians learned arithmetic and astronomy. Jacob succeeded Abraham in the office of teaching. He was a plain man, dwelling in tents, which, according to the Chaldee paraphrase, signifies, he was a *perfect man, and a minister in the house of doctrine.* Some of the festivals and ceremonies of the Jews were peculiarly adapted to the instruction of youth in the knowledge of their sacred and political institutions. We need only mention the ritual of the Passover, as calculated to effect one of these important and desirable purposes. "On the day of the celebration of that great event, every household became a school, and its master a teacher." "And it shall come to pass, when ye be come into the land which the Lord will give ye, according as he hath promised, that ye shall keep this service. And when your children shall say unto you, What mean ye by this service? that ye shall say, It is the sacrifice of the Lord's passover, who passed over the houses of the children of Israel in Egypt, when he smote the Egyptians and delivered our houses. And the people bowed the head and worshiped."*

In this happy town, the municipal guardians of youth esteem a good education, and a fair moral character, as indispensable qualifications for a public in-

* Exodus, xii, 24.

structor; and the same care is exercised in procuring suitable teachers in many other parts of New England. But to the shame of some large and populous districts, in this and other States, the office is given to the lowest bidder, and any itinerant peddler, if he find the market dull for beads and ribbons, may vend his folly and vulgarity, "*at a reduced price*," *from the master's desk.* It is a truth familiar to observation, that such districts produce the most factious and troublesome members of society, and are scenes of habitual litigiousness and immorality. And this will always be the case, when mercenary men, destitute of sound information, knowledge, talents, moral feeling and deportment, are employed as public or private tutors. Many a bitter and reproachful tear will fall on the tomb of the parent whose child has been ruined by the evil example, or the weak or vicious instructions of an ignorant or a wicked master. Pericles, in his famous oration at the funeral of the young men who perished in the Samian expedition, has a thought much celebrated by ancient critics: "That the loss which the Commonwealth suffered by the destruction of its youth, was like the loss which the year would suffer by the destruction of the Spring. The prejudice which the public sustains from a wrong education of children, is an evil of the same nature, as it in a manner starves posterity, and deprives our country of those persons, who, with proper care, might make an eminent figure in their respective posts in life." As a contrast to those who are light esteemers of talents and virtue in the tutors of their children, we may cite the wiser ancients, among whom, the instructors of youth were the most eminent of their philosophers. We may mention many Grecian and Roman sages, who, as teachers of science and morals, are worthy of our most respectful attention. The travels and literary labors of Pythagoras, of Aristotle, of Socrates, their systems and establishments, would furnish materials, not merely for an oration, but for a library.

The speaker then enlarges on the example of PLATO, "who devoted himself to science and to the instruction of youth, until he rested from his honorable labors in the 81st year of his age." "MILTON, the British Homer, did not think his sublime muse dishonored by the company of children; nor his study the less an abode of religion, science and taste, because it was frequented by his juvenile disciples. Our fellow-laborer, Dr. SAMUEL JOHNSON, is remembered on this occasion with peculiar pleasure and pride. His Dictionary was the production of a gigantic intellect, and would have secured immortality to his name, even had he never written an ethical line 'to give ardor to virtue or confidence to truth.' The pious and eloquent FENELON, whose immortal Telemachus was composed as a book of lessons for a young prince, will ever be venerated as the moral epic bard of France, and as one of the noblest ethical and political instructors of the world."

My associated brethren will feel their obligations to the faithful discharge of their important duties, strengthened and increased by the preceding facts and observations. An ambition to raise the honors of a noble family is glorious, and can not fail to produce the most beneficial consequences. On the contrary, the sordid drone, who rests contented with the hereditary distinctions of a worthy ancestry, will inevitably sink into contempt and ruin. *Vix ea nostra voco* should be added to the motto of every man who bears the emblazoned arms of a race ennobled by the virtues or exploits of its founder. Let him by his merits make the honors of his ancestors his own, then will he wear them with the pride of conscious desert, and their luster will be brightened in his hands. Let us, my brethren, while we contemplate the characters of the sages who have instructed mankind from the earliest times, endeavor, like them, to do good in our day and generation, and by imitating their example, establish our claim to a participation in their glory.

The admission of girls to the public schools, effected for the first time about the beginning of this century, is thus noticed:

The institutions for the instruction of youth, which this metropolis can boast,

are monuments of the wisdom of our ancestors, and foundations of hope for our posterity. But the improvement on ancient systems, and indeed, in an essential respect, on modern ones, which has been made in our seminaries, is deserving of universal imitation and applause. I mean the admission of females to the advantages of a public education. When it is considered that there is an inseparable connection between domestic comfort and happiness, and feminine virtue and knowledge, we can not be too grateful to the institutors of the present enlarged and benevolent plan of instruction. The good wife is the BONA DEA of our households. To her we are indebted for all that makes *home* the most endearing of names, and all the variety of delightful ideas with which it is associated. Her smile gladdens our return, and the recollection of it is a tie of most sacred influence, which draws us in season from abroad. The virtuous wife is indeed more precious than rubies. From her lips, and at her knee, our children are taught the purest elements of religion and knowledge. She is the first cultivator of the tender mind, and next to God, to her we owe our warmest gratitude and love.

But the opinion is sordid and illiberal in the extreme, that the sphere of a woman's duty is confined to the management of her household. She was formed to be not merely the helpmate, but the companion and bosom friend of her husband, his COUNSELOR;—his glory in prosperity, and his consolation in adversity. To inform her mind is to double the capacity, and strengthen the inclination, which nature has given her to be benevolent and useful. Her tenderness of soul, and acuteness of sensibility, require the guardian care of education in her early years. To deprive her of the power of thinking correctly and independently, is nothing less than the meanest and most unjustifiable despotism. Such conduct may well comport with the policy of the narrow-minded Mohammedan, who thinks *woman* has no soul for salvation, because *he* has no soul for virtuous love; but the enlightened Christian, whose doctrines and practice are drawn and modeled from a better school, will consider the cultivation of the female mind as an imperious duty of his holy religion. He will never cease to applaud our municipal fathers, who, in the establishment of their academical system, admitted the truth of the principle, that the surest way to make men prudent, prosperous and happy, is to give them good and sensible mothers and wives.

"The calamities and blessings, the sorrows and consolations of schoolmasters," receive a share of notice.

Truly, like the rest of their species, they are born unto trouble as the sparks fly upwards. Yet they *have* their *comforts*, and in their course of life they have that common balance of good and evil which seems to determine their claim to a seat in the family of man. When unfortunate, they are preserved through hope; when in prosperity, they rejoice. One would suppose that nothing could be more tranquil and happy than the life of a schoolmaster. And it would be so, were every child like that of the happy man in Terence, who said, "all men praise my good fortune, who have a son of such promising talents and of so amiable a disposition." Then indeed the business of education would be delightful, and the labor of the instructor its continual and unspeakable reward. Or, were all men reasonable in their paternal feelings and expectations, and in their estimate of the powers and duties of schoolmasters, the harmony that would exist between public and domestic discipline, the mutual coöperation and confidence of parent and teacher, would render the task of both easy and pleasant, and the obedience of the pupil cheerful and constant. But this is a state of things which exists in our wishes rather than in general reality. The schoolmaster is often placed in the most mortifying and vexatious circumstances by the caprice, the ignorance, the doating fondness, or the absurd requisitions of parents or guardians. He is too mild for this—too severe for that—partial to one—neglectful of the other—to the rich man's son he is indulgent, while the poor man's is the scapegoat of the school, and is beaten for faults he never committed; he keeps *my* child drudging in the background, and confers on my neighbor's every public honor and distinction. He is censured for mistaken endeavors to please, and worse than all, required, from the abundance of his *own*, to supply the deficiency of *brains* for every little urchin that has "*a head no*

ielebore can cure."* I need not swell this catalogue with his poverty and the necessity of his *observance* of the virtue of economy, until its *practice* borders on parsimony—these are known too well to require formal mention in this place. I will only add that, with all his savings and "short commons," he must look forward, with frequent *chills*, to the tedious days of weary old age, when he must work, however feeble, or become dependent on casual bounty, and die with the miserable consolation of leaving a destitute family to the mercy and charity of the world. Alas! beneficence, among her numerous and splendid establishments in this metropolis, has not yet even looked about for a spot to found an asylum for the decayed schoolmaster. Yet, who is more worthy of an honorable shelter for his grey hairs, than he whose life has been spent in rearing useful citizens for the Commonwealth? My brethren, by the favor of Divine Providence on the exertions of this institution, the shades of the picture I have drawn will be gradually softened. They already begin to reflect the dawn of better times, to be tinged with the rays of rising hope. We will catch a beam on our bosoms, and indulge the cheering foretaste of a happy day!

Mr. Lathrop was the earliest lecturer on science in its application to the arts and in its popular aspects, in Boston. In 1811 he imported apparatus to illustrate a course of lectures on Astronomy and Natural Philosophy, which was paid for out of the sale of tickets to the course.

We have also before us a copy of an "*Address delivered before the Associated Instructors of Boston and its Vicinity on their Anniversary, Oct.* 10, 1816. By Thomas Payson, Esq., A. M. One of the Public Instructors of Boston. Printed by John Eliot, 1816." In this address, Master Payson discusses with ability and earnestness many questions, which still agitate the educational Institutes and Associations of our day. We can give but brief notice of this valuable historical document. The author pays deserved compliments to Pestalozzi, Lancaster, Genlis, Barbauld, and particularly to Miss Edgeworth, (to whom he applies the praise "of excelling all the daughters of education,") whose "new and useful principles" of teaching and training were becoming known to American teachers. He believes in the essential difference of mind and capacity of improvement in different individuals, but argues that this difference calls for modification of methods, and not the application of new principles, in interesting groups of children and youth with such diverse talents. He urges the adoption of more uniformity both in tuition and discipline, by preceptors of the same community, and to greater uniformity in text-books. He advocates the exclusion from the profession (having the right to teach) of all "who have not had a regular and proper education, and who have not been formally examined and formally approbated by competent judges, as qualified to give instruction in the particular branches of science, to which he may make pretensions." By a "regular and proper education," he does not mean necessarily a "collegiate." "We need not go beyond our own college connections to find a Sir Solomon Sapscull decorated with a diploma, when he should bear on his brow the badge of the order of ignorance; and yet of such crude materials are our schoolmasters sometimes fabricated—men, rendered unfit for manual labor by their indolent habits, betake themselves to the tuition of children in subjects of which they prove themselves deplorably ignorant." On the other hand he cites the experience of the former President of the Association, Osgood Carleton, "who, without even the means of the most common education while a minor, by his unconquerable desire of knowledge and taste for mathematical science, by vigor

* How can one make a good sword from bad iron? If weak eyes can not see in the day, what fault is there in the sun?—*Hafiz.*

of mind and persevering efforts and exemplary virtue, overcame all obstacles, and became a brave soldier, a cultivated teacher of mathematics and navigation, a practical surveyor, a scientific geographer, astronomer, and upright magistrate." He is particularly severe on the teachers of penmanship, (in which Mr. Payson particularly excelled, and whose system was in great repute for a whole generation in Boston,) reading, and grammar. "Your Institution, if judiciously directed, would check, if not cure, this evil" of incompetent teachers. "It should be converted into a literary crucible, in which to assay the intrinsic qualifications of candidates for scholastic appointments." The proverbial existence of quackery and imbecility among instructors Mr. Payson considers "the cause of the disrespect in which they are held, and of the cheap rate at which their services are estimated and rewarded." "Empirical pretenders to some new nostrum for the communication of knowledge in each of the arts and sciences to the minds of children in a definite number of hours, and by a limited number of lessons, inflict most of the cities and villages of our country and crowd the chartered columns of some vehicle of news and puffs with advertisements and certificates of their wonder-working processes." This mode of "gulling the public" did not die out under Mr. Payson's severe handling, but is in vigorous life in 1865. The remedy proposed in 1816 was "to subject all candidates, both for private and public schools, in every term, to an examination and approbation of a competent board." Mr. Payson recommends the adoption of some uniform standard for the pronunciation of the English tongue, and some protection against the innovation of successive lexicographers. "As it is, every individual in his growth from childhood to old age, even if he be in one locality, is subjected to constant change—Dr. Dilworth dictates to his childhood, Dr. Perry to his boyhood, Dr. Sheridan to his youth, Dr. Walker to his manhood, &c., &c." And his case is worse if he moves into different States. Uniformity of elementary books, and some acknowledged authority of the best scholars, are suggested as the remedy.

In the processes of elementary instruction, he recommends "the very useful method of seizing on the imagination and at the same time informing the understanding through the medium of sensible objects." Here is "Object-teaching" a half-century ago! To make the improvements of one teacher the common property of the profession, he suggests "that there should be a systematic routine of visiting and examining each other's schools," and "some public examination of some of our pupils, as has lately been attempted by this Society. Each instructor should take an active part in such examinations." "It will naturally tend to keep him on the alert, and he will be less likely to sleep at his post." "These public examinations will make real excellencies known and appreciated. The public are not ungenerous, and here in Boston there is a disposition to distinguish the meritorious and reward with liberality." "To be known we must be active. We must make our light shine before men. To be respected, we must respect ourselves. To be encouraged and rewarded, we must give proof of talents, fidelity and success, and especially should we evince liberality and public spirit enough to induce us to merge all minor motives in that great one of contributing our united efforts to serve the solid interests of our schools and of this Society."

On the subject of "discipline," the lecturer holds that while "the word of the teacher must be received and obeyed as law within his little realm," he is a con-

vert to what has been termed 'the *restrictive* energies of government' rather than the habitual use of severe corporal applications." "Moderation, firmness, patient perseverence," and above all, "the stimulus of reward," will conquer the most obdurate and refractory pupil. Mr. Payson's views on this subject are substantially those held and avowed by Hon. Horace Mann thirty years later, and for which he provoked a controversy, which has passed into the history of education in this country. "There are," remarks Mr. Payson, "most unfortunately some pedagogues who appear never to be more gratified than in recounting the frequent instances and the severity with which they inflict corporal punishment. To hear them one is reduced to the dreadful dilemma of discrediting either their humanity or their veracity." "It is neither very natural, nor very easy for a child to respect and love those from whom he is in the habit of receiving the discipline of the ferule or the rod. Even the influence of natural affection, and the obligations of gratitude and allegiance, subsisting between child and parent, are scarcely powerful enough at home to counteract the effect of such unpleasant associations." "The idea of rewards, as well as of punishments, in any rational view, is necessary to the right influence of human conduct. The benevolent scheme of Christianity is a solitary but sublime exception to the general doctrine and practice of religious communities. In that we find promise paramount to threatening, hope triumphant over terror, and the recompense of reward exalted over the fear of punishment." "Let us then, my brethren, unite our deliberations and our labors, to devise and digest some system of general school instruction and government, in which rewards shall constitute a predominant feature. And let the experiment for once be fairly tried, whether, by such means, we may not in time be so fortunate, as to render disgraceful corporal punishment, 'a strange work' in our schools."

With this benevolent appeal and aspiration the address closes, and with this address closes all printed record or trace which we have found of the "Associated Instructors of Boston," until the famous controversy was inaugurated by "*Remarks on the Seventh Annual Report of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education.* By Thirty-One Boston Teachers." [1844. 176 pages.] These "Remarks" originated in the action of the Association of the Grammar Masters of Boston in the winter of 1844. Of the doings of the Association, beyond the "Rejoinders" to Mr. Mann's "Reply," we have no information. There are no records of any public meetings for the discussion of topics connected with the improvement of the Public Schools of Boston, or the advancement of the Profession of Teaching. The extent of the literature of the controversy inaugurated by the publication of the "Remarks," will be seen in the "List of Publications of Mr. Mann" hereto appended.

The following communication sets forth a most important movement on the part of the Teachers of Boston and its vicinity, which is worthy of imitation in all our large cities:—

Boston Education Room, or Massachusetts Teachers' Headquarters.

"The first movement towards opening a *Room for Teachers' Headquarters in Boston* was made in December, 1857, by D. B. Hagar, Esq., late Principal of the West Roxbury High School, and the present Principal of the State Normal School at Salem, who solicited subscriptions in behalf of the enterprise of most of the male teachers in the public schools of Boston and the vicinity. Some as-

sistance was afforded him in this work by B. W. Putnam, Esq., the then submaster in the Quincy School, Boston. The sum raised in this way at the outset was three hundred dollars or more, and it was increased to about five hundred dollars by appropriations by the Directors of the State Teachers' Association, and by the Directors of the American Institute of Instruction.

After two or three years, private subscriptions for this object were discontinued, the expense of the Room being shared by the State Association, the Institute, and the *Massachusetts Teacher*, and for a time its affairs were managed by a joint committee representing the above-named contributing parties.

The Room first occupied was in the Congregational building in Chauncey street. The location of this Room not being sufficiently central for the convenience of teachers, the present Education Room, at 119 Washington street, was secured about three years ago.

The Room has been used from the first as the publishing room of the *Massachusetts Teacher*, for the library of the American Institute of Instruction, and the meetings of its Directors, for official and informal meetings of teachers, and for an educational reading room, being supplied with the various educational journals of the country, as well as quite a number of educational periodicals, which are free for the use of all teachers.

This Room is at all times accessible to teachers and friends of education, and for several years teachers of Boston and the neighboring cities and towns have here held meetings regularly on the first and second Saturdays of each month, for the familiar discussion of educational topics, the illustration of methods of teaching, and the exhibition of maps, apparatus, school fixtures and equipments, and school-books.

These meetings are held by the teachers who choose to drop in. They are not organized into a body. There is a permanent secretary to report the debates for the *Massachusetts Teacher*, and at each meeting a gentleman is designated to preside at the next. It is his business to select the question to be considered, and to engage some person or persons to open the discussion. The interest in these meetings has been well sustained, and the Room seems to have become a permanent institution as a TEACHERS' EXCHANGE."

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS BY HORACE MANN, LL. D.

THE COMMON SCHOOL JOURNAL. 1839—1848. 10 vols., royal octavo.

ABSTRACT OF MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOL RETURNS. 1839—1847.

ANNUAL REPORTS (TWELVE,) AS SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, from 1838 to 1849.

SUPPLEMENTARY REPORT ON SCHOOL-HOUSES. 1838.

MASSACHUSETTS SYSTEM OF COMMON SCHOOLS; being an enlarged and revised edition of the Tenth Annual Report. 1849. pp. 212.

LECTURES ON EDUCATION. 1845. pp. 338.

AN ORATION, DELIVERED BEFORE THE AUTHORITIES OF THE CITY OF BOSTON. July 4, 1842. pp. 86.

A FEW THOUGHTS FOR A YOUNG MAN; a Lecture, delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, on its Twenty-ninth Anniversary. 1850. pp. 84.

A FEW THOUGHTS ON THE POWERS OF WOMEN. Two Lectures. 1853. pp. 141.

DEDICATION OF ANTIOCH COLLEGE, AND INAUGURAL ADDRESS OF ITS PRESIDENT. 1854. pp. 144.

BACCALAUREATE, DELIVERED AT ANTIOCH COLLEGE. 1857. pp. 61.

DEMANDS OF THE AGE ON COLLEGES. Speech delivered before the Christian Convention, Ohio. October 5, 1854. pp. 86.

We give below the titles of the pamphlets which we have had bound together and lettered "*Mann's Educational Controversies.*"

THE COMMON SCHOOL CONTROVERSY; consisting of three Letters of the Secretary of the Board of Education, in reply to charges preferred against the Board, with extracts from the daily press, in regard to the controversy. 56 pages.

SEVENTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION. (By Horace Mann.) January 1, 1844. pp. 188.

Remarks on the Seventh Annual Report of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. By Thirty-one Boston Teachers. 1844. pp. 144.

Reply to the "Remarks" of Thirty-one Boston Schoolmasters, on the Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. By Horace Mann. 1844. pp. 176.

Rejoinder to the "Reply" of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education to the "Remarks" of the Association of Boston Masters, upon his Seventh Annual Report. 1845. By the "Thirty-one Schoolmasters." pp. 55.

Rejoinder to the Second Section of the "Reply." By Wm. A. Shepard. March, 1845. pp. 56.

Rejoinder to the Third Section of the "Reply." By S. S. Greene. March, 1845. pp. 40.

Rejoinder to the Fourth Section of the "Reply." By Joseph Hale. April, 1845. pp. 64.

Answer to the "Rejoinder" of "Twenty-nine" Boston Schoolmasters, part of the "Thirty-one" who published "Remarks" on the Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. By Horace Mann. 1845. pp. 124.

Penitential Tears; or a Cry from the Dust. By "the Thirty-one," prostrated and pulverized by the Hand of Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education. 1845. pp. 59.

"Penitential Tears!" By Massachusetts.

Observations on a pamphlet, entitled "Remarks on the Seventh Annual Report of the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education." By G. B. Emerson. pp. 16.

Mr. Bumstead's Defense of his School-books, in reply to Mr. S. S. Greene. July, 1845. pp. 8.

Report of the Special Committee of the Primary School Board, on a portion of the Remarks of the Grammar Masters. Boston: 1844. pp. 13.

Report of a Committee of the Association of Masters of the Boston Public Schools, on a letter from Dr. John Odin, in relation to a Report of the Special Committee of the Primary School Board. Boston: 1845. pp. 18.

School Discipline. By Anti-Busby.

The Schoolmasters' Review of Mr. Mann's Report. By Luther.

REPORTS OF THE ANNUAL VISITING COMMITTEES, OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE CITY OF BOSTON. 1845. pp. 168.

Review of the Reports of the Annual Visiting Committees, of the Public Schools of the City of Boston, 1845. By Scholiast. pp. 58.

The Scholiast Schooled. An Examination of the Review of the Reports of the Annual Visiting Committees of the Public Schools of the City of Boston, for 1845, by Scholiast. By A Bostonian. 1846. pp. 65.

Address to the Citizens of Boston. By S. G. Howe, William Brigham, J. L. T Coolidge, and Theophilus Parsons. March, 1846. pp. 12.

THE BIBLE, THE ROD, AND RELIGION, IN COMMON SCHOOLS. The Ark of God on a new cart: A Sermon, by the Rev. Matthew Hale Smith. A Review of the Sermon, by Wm. B. Fowle, publisher of the Massachusetts Common School Journal. Strictures on the Sectarian Character of the Common School Journal, by a Member of the Massachusetts Board of Education. Correspondence between the Hon. Horace Mann, Secretary of the Board of Education, and Rev. Matthew Hale Smith. Boston: 1847. pp. 59.

Sequel to the so-called Correspondence between the Rev. Matthew Hale Smith and Horace Mann, surreptitiously published by Mr. Smith; containing a letter from Mr. Mann, suppressed by Mr. Smith, with the reply therein promised. Boston: 1847. pp. 56.

Reply to the Sequel of Hon. Horace Mann; being a supplement to the Bible, the Rod, and Religion, in Common Schools. By Matthew Hale Smith. Second edition. Boston: 1847. pp. 36.

Letter to the Rev. Matthew Hale Smith, in an answer to his "Reply" or "Supplement." By Horace Mann. Boston: 1847. pp. 22.

Horace Mann and Matthew Hale Smith. April 30, 1847. pp. 8.

IX. AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

PART I. AUTHORS AND BOOKS.

The catalogue of authors and books, of which we commence the publication in this number, was originally intended to embrace the Text-Books in the compiler's own collection, but has been extended to include all of American authorship, publication, or use, of which he has been able to obtain any information. This information, in many instances, is very imperfect and unsatisfactory, but will at least serve as a clue to further inquiry.

The books, to whose title a single asterisk (*) is annexed, as also the editions, whose dates, or places of publication are placed within parenthesis ( ), are not in his possession. Of each of these books the compiler would be glad to obtain a copy, by exchange of duplicates in his possession, which are indicated by a double asterisk (**).

No dates are abbreviated unless later than 1800. Other abbreviations will need no explanation.

Much pains has been taken to secure correctness and completeness. Many errors, however, and omissions will doubtless be detected in regard to those books, which the compiler has not seen, and whose titles, dates, and places of publication, and authorship have been gleaned from numerous sources, not always reliable.

Corrections and additional information are solicited. To any collector, author, or publisher, who will signify a wish to see the list under any letter of the alphabet, before it is published, that it may be made to include a correct entry of every school book under that letter in his possession or knowledge, an impression will be forwarded, before it is printed, and any addition, or correction returned will be entered, before the same is published.

All communications relating to this subject can be addressed directly to the "*Editor of the American Journal of Education*," *Hartford, Conn.*

OLLENDORFF, HENRY G. (*continued.*)
El Maestro de Frances, (French Teacher for Spaniards.) Edited by Vingut. N. York.*
Le Maitre d'Espagnol, (Spanish Teacher for Frenchmen.) Edited by Vingut. N. York.*
OLMSTED, ALEXANDER F.,
Elements of Chemistry. New Haven, 1851; (New York?)
OLMSTED, DENISON,
Rudiments of Natural Philosophy. N. York.*
Rudiments of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy. New Haven, 1844. N. Y., 1859. (Cin.)
Compend. of Nat. Philosophy, (School Phil.,) N. Haven, 1837, ('47,) '49, '51. (Boston, '33.)
Introd. to Nat. Philosophy, (College Phil.) N. Haven. 2 vols. 3d ed. 1838. (New York.)
Same, rev. by E. S. Snell. New York, 1860.
Outlines of Lectures on Nat. Philosophy. New Haven, 1828, 1829.
Outlines of Lectures on Meteorology and Astronomy, (N. Y., 1839.) N. Haven, '50, '58.
Rudiments of Astronomy. New York; Cin.*
Letters on Astronomy. Boston, 1841. N. York, rev. ed. 1856.
Compend. of Astronomy, (School Astr.) N. Haven; New York.*
Introd. to Astronomy, (College Astr.) New York, 4th ed. 1844.
Do. with Mason's Supplement. N. Haven; New York.*
Do. rev. by Snell. New York.*
Student's Common-Place Book. New Haven.*
OLNEY, JESSE,
Little Reader. New Haven.*
Easy Reader. New Haven, n. d., 1841.
The School Reader. New Haven, 1843. (N. Y.)
National Preceptor. Hartford, (2d edition, 1830.) 3d edition, 1831. 4th edition, 1833. New York, 21st edition, 1845.
Testament for Schools.*
Practical Geography for Use of Schools. Hartford, 1827.
First Geography, (Primary?) New York, 1849.
Practical Introd. to Geography. N. Y., 1849.
Practical System of Modern Geography. Hartford, (1828. 2d edition, 1829. 3d edition, 1829.) 4th edition, 1830. 6th edition, 1830. 8th edition, 1831. 12th edition, 1833. New York, 32d edition, 1839. 38th edition, 1842. 44th edition, 1844. 63d edition, 1850.
School Atlas. New York, n. d.
New and Improved School Atlas. Hartford, n. d. (New York, 1841.)
Quarto Geography. New York, n. d.**
A System of Geographical Questions. Hartford, 1827.*
Outline Maps. New York.*
Geographi'l Exercises on Outline Maps. N. Y.*
Elementary Geography, adapted to Outline Maps. New York, 1847.
History of the United States. New Haven, 4th edition, 1836. Stereotype edition, n. d. 14th edition, 1853.
Child's Manual; or, Practical and Mental Arithmetic. Hartford, 3d edition, 1833.
Improved System of Arithmetic. Hartford, '39.
OLNEY, J., & P. GALLUP,
Improved System of Arithmetic. Hartford, 1841, 1844, 1856.
O'NEILL, JOHN,
Geometry and Popular Astronomy. Edited by James. Baltimore, 1812.
O'NEILL, J. W.,
Glimpses of Animated Nature. Philadelphia.*
OPDYKE, GEORGE,
Treatise on Political Economy. N. Y., 1851.*
ORAM, ELIZABETH,
The Pictorial Definer. New York.*
First Lessons in English Grammar and Composition. New York, 1846, 1854.
First Book for the Use of Teachers. New York, 1826.*

ORCUTT, HIRAM. See *Rickard & Orcutt.*
ORMSBY ROBERT M. K.
Amer. Definition Spelling Book. Bradford, Vt., 1844.*
ORONTIUS, FINALUS,
Arithmetica Practica. Paris, 1544.*
ORTIZ, PEDRO P.,
Principios Elementales de Fisica. N. Y., 1860.
ORTEGA, JUAN DE L',
Arithmetica et Geometria. Messina, 1522.*
OSBORN, A.,
Field-Notes of Geology. New York, 1858.
OSBORN, V. R.,
Virgil. See *Hart & Osborn.*
OSGOOD, JOSIAH,
American School Song-Book. New York, '55.*
The Normal Song-Book. See *Johnson & Osgood.*
OSTERVALD, J. F.,
Le Nouveau Testament. New York.*
OSTRANDER, TOBIAS,
Arithmetic. Canandaigua.*
Astronomy. New York, 1834.*
Complete System of Mensuration. New York, 3d edition, 1834.
Key to do. New York.*
OSWALD, EUGEN,
German Reading-Book. London, 1857.
OSWALD, JOHN,
Etymological Dictionary, rev. by Keagy. Philadelphia, 1836, 1847, 1848.
OTIS, F. M.,
Primary Lessons in Pencil Drawing. Two Parts. New York.*
Easy Lessons on Landscape Drawing. Seven nos. New York, 1850.*
Studies of Animals. Seven nos. New York.*
Elementary Drawing Cards, two sets. N. Y.*
OTIS, JAMES,
Rudiments of Latin Prosody. Boston, 1760.*
OTTO, EMIL,
German Conversation Grammar. Boston, 1863.
OUGHTRED, WILLIAM,
Arithmeticæ in Numeris et Speciebus Institutio, &c. Clavis est. London, 1631.
Key to the Mathematics, New Forged and Filed. London, 1647.
OUISEAU, J. See *Thomas Nugent.*
OVERMAN, FRANCIS,
Principles of Mechanics, &c. Phila., 1851.*
Practical Mineralogy. Philadelphia, 1851,*
OVIDIUS, NASO, PUBLIUS,
Minellius Anglicanus, Sive. Metamorphoseon, Lib. XV. Edited by N. Bailey. London. '24.
Metamorphoses in fifteen books. Edited by Bailey, (same.) Cork, 1804.
Metamorphoseon Lib. XV., (Delph. edition,) edited by Andrews. Philadelphia, 1805.
Metamorphoses. Edited by Anthon. N. York.*
Same, ed. by Brooks. N. Y., 1855. Phila., '49.*
Same, with interlinear translations, by Hamilton, rev. by Clark. Philadelphia.*
Selections from the Metamorphoses. Edited by Andrews. Boston, 1845.*
Same. Edited by Gould. Boston.*
Excerpta ex Carminibus. Edited by Schmitz and Zumpt. Philadelphia, 1851, 1857.
Excerpta ex Scriptis, in Usum Scholæ Bost. B. A. Gould. Boston, 1827.*
De Tristibus, Lib. V., (Delph. edition,) London, 2d edition, 1719. Dublin, 1729.
OWEN, JOHN, J.
Greek Reader. New York.*
Acts of the Apostles, with Lexicon. N. Y.*
Commentary on Matthew and Mark. New York, 1857.*
Homer's Iliad. New York.*
" Odyssey. New York.*
Thucydides. New York.*
Xenophon's Anabasis. New York.*
" Cyropedia. New York.*
OWEN, W. B.,
System of Practical Penmanship. In three books. New York.*

P.

PACCIOLI, LUCAS,
Summa de Arithmetica, &c. Venice, 1494. Tusculano, 1523.* Libri's Histoire, Vol. III., contains extracts.

PACKARD, ALPHEUS S.,
Xenophon's Memorabilia. New York.*

PACKARD, S. S.,
Bryant & Stratton's National Book-keeping. New York, 1850.

PAGE, DAVID P.,
Elements of Geology. Edited by Reese. New York, 3d edition, 1848.*
Normal Chart of Elementary Sounds. N. Y.*

PAGE, D. P., AND C. NORTHEND,
National Writing-Books, in seven nos. Salem, 1847.*

PAGE, W. P.,
Chaptal's Chemistry applied to Agriculture. New York.*

PAGET, J.,
See *Kirkes & Paget.*

PALANZUELA, R., & J. DE LA C. CARRENO,
Gramatica Inglesa, (Ollendorff's English Grammar for Spaniards.) New York, 1851.*
Key to do. New York.*

PALEY, F. A.,
Tragedies of Euripides. New York, 1860.*
" " Æschylus. New York, 1860.*

PALEY, WILLIAM,
Moral and Political Philosophy. Bridgeport, 1827. (Hartford.)
Same, with questions. N. York. Boston, '52.*
" edited by Valpy and Green. Phil., 1853.*
" abridged by Judd. New York, 1828.
Epitome of same. New York, 1825.*
Natural Theology, with Notes. Boston, 1831. 10th edition, 1837.*
Same, edited by Ware. Boston, 1851, 1853.
Evidences of Christianity. New York.*
Epitome of same. New York, 1825.*

PALFREY, J. G.,
Syriac Grammar. Boston.*

PALLISER, MRS.,
Modern Poetical Speaker. London, 1845.

PALMER, GEORGE,
History of England. Hartford, 1860.**

PALMER, JOSEPH H.,
First Lessons in Book-keeping. New York.*
Common School Book-keeping. New York.*
Key and Blanks for do. New York.*
Treatise on Practical Book-keeping. New York, (1851.) 4th edition, 1853.
Key and Blanks for do. New York.*
Elements of Algebra, with Higher Arithmetic. New York, 1852.
First Book in Algebra, (Sec. I. and II. of last.) New York, 1852.

PALMER, MARY,
Concise System of English Grammar. New York, 1803.*

PALMER, SAMUEL,
Manual; or, Selection of Biblical Questions. New London, 1823.**

PALMER, THOMAS H.,
The Moral Instructor, Part I. Boston, n. d.
" " " " II. Boston, 1843, ('46, '47,) '51.
" " " " III. Boston, 1842, ('47,) '49, '51.
" " IV. Boston, 1842. (Phila., n. d.)
Arithmetic, Oral and Written. Boston, 1854.

PALMQVIST, P.,
Skol-Sänger. Stockholm, 1854.

PANSERO, A.,
The A B C of Music. Translated by Fry. Edited by Dorigo. Philadelphia, 1855.*

PAPPS, THOMAS,
Improved System of Book-keeping. London, 1818.*

PAPPUS,
Wallis' Opera Mathematica. Vol. III.

PARDIES, F. I. G.,
Elements of Geometry, translated by Harris. London, 8th edition, 1746.

PARDON, WILLIAM,
Compendious System of Practical Arithmetic. London, 1738.*

PARISH, ELIJAH,
Compendious System of Universal Geography. Newburyport, Me., 1st edition, 1807. (Hallowell, 1809.)
New System of Modern Geography. Newburyport, 1810. 2d edition, 1812.**
See *Jedediah Morse.*

PARK, ROSWELL,
Introduction to Study of Arithmetic. Boston, 1849.**

PARKE, U.,
Farmers' and Mechanics' Practical Arithmetic. Hartford, 1844. (Philadelphia.)
Key to do. Philadelphia, 1849.*
Lectures on the Philosophy of Arithmetic. Philadelphia, 1849.*

PARKER, DANIEL,
Improved Arithmetic. New York, 1833.

PARKER, JAMES,
Arithmetic in Algebra. London, 1829.*

PARKER, J. C. D.,
Manual of Harmony and Thorough Base. B.*

PARKER, RICHARD GREEN,
The Child's Primer. New York.*
The School Primer. New York, 1852.*
School Readers, Nos. I.-V. New York.*
National Series of Selections for Reading, Part IV. New York, 1857.*
Progressive Exercises in Rhetorical Reading. Boston, (1830.) New edition, 1843. (New York, 9th edition, 1856.)
Progressive Exercises in English Composition. Boston, (1832.) 3d edition, 1838. 12th edition, 1835. 45th edition, 1845. New edition, 1855, 1856.**
Sequel to do. Boston, 1835.*
Aids to English Composition. New York, (1st edition, 1844.) 20th edition, 1860.
Outlines of General History. New York, new edition, 1859.
Questions in Geography. New York, 4th edition, 1848, (1851.) New edition, 1859.
Infant's Philosophy. New York.*
Philosophy in Familia. Conversations, (Juvenile Philosophy, Part I.) New York, 1855.*
First Lessons in Natural Philosophy, (Juvenile Philosophy, Part II.) New York, 1848, 1854.**
School Compendium of Natural and Experimental Philosophy. Boston, 2d edition, 1839. New York, 21st edition, 1848. 22d edition, 1849, '51, '53, ('54, '55, '57.)
Chemical Catechism. New York, 1821.*

PARKER, R. G., & C. FOX,
Progressive Exercises in English Grammar, Part I. Boston, (1834. 3d edition, 1835.) 7th edition, 1839. (8th edition, 1841.) 9th edition, 1842.
Same, Part II. Boston, 3d edition, 1835. 4th edition, 1839, (1840.)
Same, Part III. Boston, 1840.**

PARKER, R. G., & J. M. WATSON,
The National Primer; or, Primary Word-builder. New York.*
The National Pronouncing Speller. New York, 1857, 1858.
The National Elementary Speller. N. York.*

PARKER R. G., & J. M. WATSON, (*continued.*)
The National First Reader, or Word-builder. New York, 1857.*
The National Second Reader. New York, '57.*
" " Third " New York, '57.*
" " Fourth " New York, 1858.
" " Fifth " New York, 1860.

PARKER, R. G., & J. C. ZACHOS,
Introductory Lessons in Reading and Elocution. New York.*

PARKER, S. E.,
Logic; or, the Art of Reasoning Simplified. Philadelphia.*

PARKER, ——,
The Ready Reckoner. 1804.*

PARKES, SAMUEL,
Rudiments of Chemistry, 1813.*
Same, edited by Renwick. New York. 1824.
Elementary Treatise on Chemistry. London, new edition, 1852.

PARKHURST, JOHN,
Hebrew and English Lexicon. London, 1799.*

PARKHURST, JOHN L.,
First Lessons in Reading and Spelling. New York.*
English Grammar for Beginners. Andover, '38.
Systematic Introduction to English Grammar. Concord, 1820. 2d edition, 1824.*
Elements of Moral Philosophy. Concord, 1825. Boston, 2d edition, 1832.

PARMELE, TRUMAN,
Questions on the New Testament. 2d ed. 1826.*

PARMENTIER, CHARLES L.,
Meadow's Italian and English Pronouncing Dictionary. New York.*

PARNELL, E. A.,
Applied Chemistry. New York, 1844.*

PARRISH, EDWARD,
Introduction to Practical Pharmacy. A Text-book for Students. Philadelphia, 1856.*

PARSONS, JOHN,
Clavis Arithmeticæ. London, 1703.*

PARSONS, J. U.,
Analytical Spelling-Book. Boston, 5th edition, 1836. (Portland.)
Analytical Vocabulary. Boston, 3d ed. 1837.
Analytical Primer. Portland, 1838.*
Biblical Analysis.*

PARSONS, LEMUEL H.,
The Grammatical Reader. Philadelphia, 1836.*

PARTRIDGE, J. H.,
Elementary Arithmetic. New York, 1854.*

PARTRIDGE, SETH,
Rabdologia, or Numbering by Rods. London, 1648.*

PASQUIER, STEPHEN,
French Grammar. See *Levizac.*

PATERCULUS, C. V.,
Literally Translated, by Watson. New York, 1855.*

PATERSON, JOHN,
The Calculus of Operations. Albany, 1850.*

PATERSON, T. V.,
Grammar Without a Master. New York.*

PATRICK, SAMUEL,
Colloquiorum Erasmi Opus Aureum. London, 1760.

PATTEN, EZRA,
Book of Knowledge. Suffield, 1799.

PATTERSON, DAVID,
Adam's Latin Grammar. New York, 1833.
Cæsar de Bello Gallico et Civili. N. York, 1829.
Jacob's Greek Reader. New York, 1829.*
Mair's Introduction to Latin Syntax. N. Y.*

PATTERSON, JOHN,
Preceptor for the Fife. Albany.*
" " " Flute. Albany; New York.*
" " " Violin. Albany.*

PATTERSON, ROBERT,
Treatise on Practical Arithmetic. Pittsburg, 1st edition, 1818.*

PATTERSON, ROBERT, (*continued.*)
Gough's American Accountant. Workman's edition, revised. Philadelphia, 3d ed. 1796
Ewing's Lectures on Natural Philosophy. Philadelphia, 1810.*
Ferguson's Astronomy. Philadelphia, 1st ed., 1806.
Ferguson's Lectures. Edited by Brewster. 2 vols. Philadelphia, 1st edition, 1814.

PATTON, R. B.,
Thiersch's Greek Tables, translated. Andover, 1822. New York, 2d edition, 1830.
Greek and English Lexicon. See *J. Donnegan.*

PAUL, J. See *John Todd.*

PAUL, R.,
Elements of Arithmetic. St. Louis, 1823.

PAUL, R. B.,
Putz's Hand-book of Mediæval Geography and History. New York.*

PAYNE, GEORGE,
Elements of Mental and Moral Science. New York, 1829.*

PAYSON & DUNTON,
System of Penmanship. In 4 parts. Boston, 1852. Revised Series. In 8 parts. 1854, '57.*

PAYSON, DUNTON, & SCRIBNER,
Theory and Art of Penmanship. Boston, 1862.
Combined System of Penmanship. 3 Series. Boston, 1857, 1862.*

PAYSON, J. W. See *Hanaford & Payson.*

PEABODY, ELIZABETH P.,
First Steps to the Study of History, Boston, 1832.*
Key to History. Part III. Boston, 1834.*
Polish American System of Chronology. Boston, 1850, 1852.**
Blank Centuries, to accompany do. Boston, 1850.**
Universal History. New York, 1859.
School History of the United States. New York.*
Chronological History of the United States. New York, 1856.**

PEABODY, EPHRAIM,
Scripture Catechism. Boston, 1846.*

PEACOCK, LUCY,
La Croze's Historical Grammar, translated. Revised by Bingham. Boston, 2d edition, 1808.

PEACOCKE, GEORGE,
Arithmetic; from Encyclopædia Metropolitana. London, 1829.*

PEACOCKE, J.,
Elementary Treatise on Algebra.

PEALE, REMBRANDT,
Graphics. Art of Accurate Delineation. Philadelphia, 1845, 1850.**

PEARCE, ——,
Longinus, 1803.*

PEARL, CYRIL,
Youth's Book on the Mind. Portland, 1842.
Same, revised by Murdock. Hartford, 1851.

PEASE, E.,
Youth's Musical Lamp and American School Song-Book. Cincinnati.*

PEASLEE, E. R.,
Human Histology for Students. Philadelphia.*

PECK, WILLIAM DANDRIDGE,
Lectures on Natural History. Boston, 1824.*

PECK, W. G.,
Elements of Mechanics. New York.*
Acoustics and Optics. New York.*
Galvanism and Electricity. New York.*
Complete Course of Natural Philosophy. New York.*
Ganot's Natural Philosophy. New York, 1860.
Mathematical Dictionary. See *C. Davies.*

PEELE, JAMES,
Book-keeping. The maner and fourme how to keepe notable accompte of Debitour and Creditour. London, 1569.*

PEET, HARVEY P.,
Vocabulary and Elementary Lessons for the Deaf and Dumb. New York, 1844.*
Elementary Lessons for the Deaf and Dumb. Part I. (the same.) New York, 1846, 1849. 4th edition, 1853.*
Part II. New York, 1st edition, 1849.*
Part III. New York, 1st edition, 1845.*
Scripture Lessons. New York, 1846, 1849.*

PEIRCE, BENJAMIN,
Elementary Treatise on Algebra. Boston, '43, 1855.*
Elementary Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. Boston, (1843, 1852.) Revised edition, 1861.
Elementary Treatise on Plane and Solid Geometry. Boston, 1841, 1850, 1855.*
Elementary Treatise on Analytic Geometry and Differential Calculus. Boston, 1846, 1852.*
Elementary Treatise on the Integral Calculus and Analytic Mechanics. Boston, 1846.*
Elementary Treatise on the Application of Analytic Mechanics. Boston, 1846.*
Elementary Treatise on Sound. Boston, 1836, 1843, 1846.*
Physical and Celestial Mechanics. Part I. Boston, 1857.*

PEIRCE, CHARLES,
The Arts and Sciences, Abridged, with Select Pieces. Portsmouth, 1806.

PEIRCE, C. H.,
Stöckhardt's Principles of Chemistry. Cambridge, 1850. Philadelphia, 1860.*

PEIRCE, JAMES MILLS,
Text-Book of Analytical Geometry. Cambridge, 1857.

PEIRCE, JOHN,
New American Spelling-Book (and English Grammar.) Philadelphia, 6th edition, 1804.

PEIRCE, LEONARD,
Conversations on Arithmetic. Boston, 1823.

PEIRCE, OLIVER B.,
The Primer. New York, 1849, 1850. (Phila.)
" First Reader. N. York, 1849, '50. (Phila.)
" Second " N. York, 1849, '50. (Phila.)
" Third " Philadelphia, 1851.
" Fourth " Philadelphia.*
" Fifth " Philadelphia.*
Grammar of the English Language. New York. 1st ed. 1839. (Watertown, N. Y. 1843.)**
Abridgment of Grammar. Boston, 1840. (New York.)**

PEIRCE, ——,
History of England, with Questions. Phila.*

PEISSNER, ELIAS,
Elements of the German Language. Philadelphia, 1855.*
Comparative English-German Grammar. Philadelphia, 1855.*

PELHAM, WILLIAM,
System of Notation. Boston, 1808.

PELOUZE, J., & E. FREMY,
General Notions of Chemistry. Translated by Evans. Philadelphia, 1854.*

PELLETIER, JAMES,
De Occulta Parte Numerorum. Paris, 1560.*
Arithmeticæ Practicæ Methodus Facilis. Paris, 1551.*

PELTON, C.,
Outline Map.*
Key to Pelton's Hemispheres. Phila. 1851.

PENGELLEY, EDWARD,
English Grammar. London, 1840.*

PENKETHMAN, JOHN,
Antachthos. [Containing Instruction in Numeration, &c.] London, 1638.*

PENROSE, JOHN,
Arithmetic. Cork, 1824.*

PERCELL, EDWARD,
Artist's Class Manual. Nos. I.–VI. N. York, 1847.*

PERCIVAL, J. G.,
Malte-Brun's Universal Geography. 3 vols, Boston, 1836.

PERCIVAL, RAYMOND,
Tradesman's Book-keeper, without the aid of a Master. London, 1834.*

PERKINS, A. J., & G. W. FITCH,
Manual of Origin and Meaning of Geographical Names. New York.*

PERKINS, GEORGE R.,
Primary Arithmetic. New York, 1850. Hartford, 1850.
Elementary Arithmetic. (Utica, 1846.) Hartford, 1849. New York, 1850.
Practical Arithmetic. New York, 1851.*
Same, in Spanish. New York.*
Key to do. New York.*
Higher Arithmetic. Utica, 3d edition, 1846. Hartford, revised edition, 1849. New York, 1850, (new edition, with Appendix.)*
Elements of Algebra. Utica, '46. (N. Y. 1850.)
Treatise on Algebra. (College edition.) Utica, 2d edition, 1847. (New York, 1850.)
Elements of Geometry. Utica, 1847, '50. (Hartford, 1848. New York, 1853.)
Plane and Solid Geometry, with Trigonometry, &c. New York, 1854, 1855.*
Plane Trigonometry and Surveying. N. Y. '52.*

PERKINS, ——,
Copy Slips. Two kinds. New York.*

PERLEY, DANIEL,
Grammar of the English Language. Andover, 1834.

PEROT, A.,
Wilhem's Musical Manual. Philadelphia.*

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II. SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE.

Prior to the Reformation, (introduced in 1558,) the degree of popular ignorance was extreme, there not being a single village school within the territory. Under the reign of Earnest, (1569–1622,) schools were established in every town and village, and in 1610 a gymnasium was founded at Stadthagen, which was afterwards raised to a University and in 1621 removed to Rinteln. By his successors, orphan houses were erected, and a fund created for building and maintaining churches, schools, &c. A new impulse was given in 1757 by John Gottfried Herder, but his continuance in the office of Consistorial Councillor and Superintendent was too brief for permanent benefit. Princess Juliana took the schools under her especial patronage, and issued the High School Ordinance of 1794, while Prince George William (1807–1860) has improved the condition of many of the teachers, established the Teachers', Widows', and Orphans' Funds, and placed them under the charge of the Consistory.

The system of primary schools within this territory does not differ essentially from that of Lippe-Detmold. The number of school children is about 4,000, included in thirty-seven school-districts. The position of the teachers in respect of culture and efficiency is not below that of any other State. The Teachers' Seminary at Bückeburg is well conducted and the seminarists (fourteen in number) are obliged, besides the normal instruction of the Seminary, to attend also the classes of the city gymnasium. The lower classes of the city schools are assigned to them, for which instruction they receive a small annual salary. Unusual facilities are afforded for improvement in music and singing, and many of the teachers are at the same time organists and sextons. The salary varies from 150 to 500 thalers. The annual tuition fee is one thaler for each child. In some of the common schools instruction is given in drawing and gymnastics.

The gymnasium at Bückeburg is a flourishing institution with five classes, nine teachers, and 155 pupils. A certificate of proficiency at the final examination admits to the University and to subsequent examination for admission into the civil service. The Latin school at Stadthagen, with twenty pupils, prepares them for entrance into the third class of the gymnasium.

The "burgher schools" of Bückeburg and Stadthagen, each with two classes, have a course of instruction somewhat in advance of the common schools. There is also a Higher Female School, with fifty scholars, under the rector of the gymnasium—and two Burgher Female Schools, with 310 pupils. The Evangelical Reformed School, with 105 pupils, the Catholic School, with twenty pupils, the Industrial School for girls, and the Infant School, include all the special and private institutions. The total number of teachers in the principality is sixty-one, besides six female teachers for instruction in domestic occupations—the total number of scholars is 5,056.

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ordinary and more practical kinds of business. He must then, as in any sense a leader, be, to the public, the "Pedagogue," the "boy-driver," the juvenile drill-sergeant, rather than the man among men, and, as such, must be subject to an inferior estimation.

Now add to this, the other fact that these children and youth are destitute of social or civil position and influence, and the case is still stronger. Every one worships power, after some fashion, and accords importance to almost any appearance of its being possessed. Preëminently is this true among a people accustomed to our system of republicanism, and our ideas of popular sovereignty. Something of this power has every man who follows the learned professions. He influences, and perhaps controls men who have some social position and, through the elective franchise, at least, civil importance. But it is not so with the teacher. His constituents neither count as society, nor are registered as voters. Hence, what are they to the community? Compare, in almost any city, the engine and hose-houses, with the school-houses. Why the one almost a mansion, and the other nearly a barn? The half-rowdy who runs with the cart, can vote; the "coming man" who cons his alphabet in the school-house can not. The truth is, in our enlightened communities, children are at a discount: is it strange then, that the teacher is not held at par?

Beyond this, note the period that must elapse between the work performed by the teacher and the manly development of character which is but its proper result. The teacher may have toiled assiduously and skillfully to sow the early seed; but years must pass, before the ripened harvest can be gathered, long before which, he that sowed may have been transferred to other fields of labor, or his work may have been in part concealed by the after-growths of time and circumstance. But over this distance between the begun, and the completed work, the common mind does not easily pass; the real relation between him who planted and him who gathers the fruit, it does not apprehend; the traces of the teacher's influence evinced in the developed man, it can not discern; and so the multitude come again to under-estimate the teacher's work.

It is also to the disadvantage of the teacher, that he works almost exclusively among the rudiments of science and thought. Among the learned professions, the man is chiefly employed in the elaboration or application of the more mature and masterly developments of truth. Not theirs the simple and unpretending office-work of selecting and distributing the tender shoots to be transplanted to the virgin soil: rather is it for them as stalwart axe-men to go forth among the sturdy trees, felling and fashioning them into post and beam for the use of the architect. But rudimental science, as adapted to the developing of the young mind, is to the community one thing, and nearly nothing at that: completed science as applicable to the wants of society and the schemes of men, is quite another and more important thing. The necessary relation of those rudiments to the knowledge of the advanced science; the preëmi-

nent importance of their right use to that just ultimate knowledge, the multitude do not apprehend. Hence, the teacher as the mere priest of the rudiments, never appears to them, in his true aspect, as the prophet of the coming science, and is therefore, not honored as such.

In this general connection, must also be cited the necessary tendency of public-school instruction to a confining and monotonous round of labor. The effect of this is directly to present the teacher to the public, less as a man and a thinker, and more as a mere operative. Unlike the professional man, the teacher is not free to unite in those discussions or movements which arouse the manhood of the community: not, that he is entirely cut off from participating in them; but that he may do this only when the occasion shapes itself to his narrow leisure, or, if otherwise, only as it were by the narrower sufferance of his employers. He isnot free as a man, to make his business, for the time being, bend to the occasion; he is not at liberty as a man to make opportunity for himself. Hence, his coming and going at such times is a matter of chance; and his active coöperation is neither truly independent nor always reliable. Under such circumstances, is it to be counted wonderful that the public fail to esteem him as a man among men.

Then too, this confining uniformity of labor, not only cuts off the teacher from the opportunity of making those outside efforts which come fully within the scope of the professions, but it unfits him mentally for all such activity. All the round of the weary hours, his mind must be busy with truths of mere science and with only those processes of thought which are suited to the rudimental training of the young mind. How now, can he be fitted and ready, after his school round is past, for those general subjects, and those manlier processes of thought, which are engrossing the minds of the citizen, in the lecture-room or the deliberative chamber? And even, if shaking off the natural indisposition begotten of the school-room, he does thrust himself into the popular arena, his efforts are not taken as parts of a professional activity, but are, in the public idea, dissevered from his calling; not only taken as thus out of it, but as beyond and really alien to it. Looking further, at the prevailing practice of securing as lecturers for our Teachers' Institutes and Teachers' Associations, clergymen, physicians, traveling lecturers, almost any class of men but teachers, one is tempted to inquire whether the public are alone in these notions; whether teachers themselves are not unconsciously, much of the same opinion. However this may be, it is easy to see that so long as these notions prevail in the community, teaching in the public-school is not likely to be looked upon as a truly professional labor.

A second class of these causes of the depression of the business of teaching, and which interfere with its taking rank as a profession, will be found growing out of *the conventional rules of the business* as belonging to a public system of education.

To begin with, the very distinction which the State makes between the teachers and the schools in the exercise of her legislative power and in

her benefactions, is enough to cast the business into discredit. There are States which we believe to be exceptions, but the general rule has been, take care of the schools, but let the teachers take care of themselves; that is, legislate for the schools, make appropriations for the schools, carefully supervise the interests of the schools, but for the teachers do little or nothing of it. Look at the simple matter of appropriations, and take the State of New York for example, which, as neither the best nor the worst, may answer as a not unfair specimen. Receiving from her school fund a revenue of some 882,291 dollars, she pays for teachers' institutes, 9,661 dollars; for free classes in the academies, (by persons of vigorous faith and vivid imagination, accepted as normal classes,) 16,346 dollars; for the Oswego training school, 8,000 dollars; and for the State Normal School, 12,000 dollars; making a sum total of appropriation for the assumed benefit of the teachers, of 41,337 dollars. On the other hand, she pays out of the same fund, for the benefit of the schools, 817,800 dollars, to which should be added the sum of 1,125,749 dollars paid out of the school tax, giving an aggregate of 1,443,594 dollars. This gives you, if you compare only the respective amounts drawn from the school fund, nearly eight times as much paid for the schools as is paid for the teachers; or, if you take the grand aggregate, *thirty-five times as much.* Quite a difference this in the appropriation estimate of the relative value of the schools and the teachers. And yet in a sound philosophy, the teacher makes the school: the teacher is the school so far as it is truly a school:—Not exactly does he say; "L'état, c'est moi;" but he may in similar phraseology and with higher truthfulness exclaim; "L'école, c'est moi."

In the matter of legislative rule, the case is still worse: the teacher is not only subordinated to the school in importance, but is subjected to almost arbitrary power. Look through the revised "School Law of 1864" for the same State. and like

> "The immortal captain Wattle,
> Who was all for love and a *little* for the bottle,"

you will find all for the school and but little for the teacher. Saving "Title XI. Of Teachers' Institutes," you might study it under the inspiring atmosphere of the assembly chamber, for an entire session, and never develop a suspicion that, in the eye of the State, the teacher is an object of any respectful, to say nothing whatever of a cherishing regard; that he has any particular rights or privileges other than that of being pretty nearly to the school trustee or commissioner,

"Something better than his dog, a little dearer than his horse." Very impressive is the dignity accorded by "the powers that be" to the public-school teacher. Hired more commonly by the month, like some professor of longitudinal excavation, he becomes accountable to a class of school officers proverbially unfitted for the intelligent fulfillment of the duties of their position, and is subjected to the scrutiny,—made absolutely dependent on the *imprimatur*, of a higher order of functionaries whose

qualifications, like those of arbitrary and imbecile rulers, it is dangerous even to discuss. Under their supervision, he is liable to be cashiered or removed without trial before his peers, and with no guaranteed right of appeal to a supreme authority interested in securing justice for the teacher as well as the school. Thus the State not only makes the teacher less than the school, but somewhat inferior to the man,—a position degrading to the calling and enough to be the death of all its professional aspirations.

Beyond this, we are compelled to charge some portion of this depression of the work of public-school teaching upon *the attitude assumed by other professions toward the business.* First of these, the clergy. Apart from all questions of a religious nature, it is quite undeniable that the church exercises in different directions, an important influence upon even the irreligious public. Caring little about her religious views, perhaps even holding them in disesteem, the public still have no small faith in the intelligence and reliability of her judgments upon other matters of a more popular character. Hence the church may actually set the current of public opinion with regard to such matters, the esteem or disesteem prevailing in that opinion, being really the product of her influence. All this is especially true as it regards the matter of education. Colleges and academies, all the higher institutions, owe more of their hold upon the public favor, to their thorough indorsement by the christian community, than to any other one thing. Nor can it be doubted that to the same influence though, perhaps, not so directly exerted, do our systems of public instruction owe their origin and their general acceptance.

While, however, all this is true of the church as related to our various institutions, it is not true that her active interest in them all is equal. Whatever it may be theoretically, practically her esteem of the higher and of the lower institutions of learning is widely different. Closely allying herself to the former, she stands quite withdrawn from the latter. Little ground do our public schools discover for believing that the church feels any direct interest in their welfare. Little evidence does the public-school teacher perceive, that the clergyman discovers in him a fellow utility, or sympathizes with him as a fellow-laborer. In visiting the school, in counseling and encouraging the teacher, in adding influence to the instruction and interest to the examinations, the preacher might do more than any other person to add to the importance of the school, and to secure in the public mind, an increased regard for the teacher. But nothing of this is done, and if the public see no more in the school or the teacher than this neglect indicates, what wonder that they see in the work of teaching, little of a professional dignity or importance.

Much the same may be urged of the higher classes of teachers themselves. That interest in the public schools and their teachers, which has been claimed as due from the clergy, may be even more justly demanded of them; for whatever may be their position or line of labor, on the public schools as a foundation, must every higher institution of

learning rest and, to a greater or less extent, depend. And yet, they allow themselves to become absorbed in their own particular work, so as neither to evince any broad and genial interest in the cause of common school education, nor any positive sympathy with public school teachers as a class of co-laborers.

Now, it should be understood that this is not charged as a causeless oversight or neglect. There is much in the confining nature of their duties which restricts, to some extent, the opportunity of these teachers to interest themselves in the lower schools. There is also much in the monotonous round of daily instruction which tends to paralyze what we may term their public energies, so that they fail to undertake even what they might for the benefit of the public school teacher. But these causes for allowance by no means undo the influence of the neglect of which we speak. No excuse for it can prevent its assisting to perpetuate the low estimate put upon the calling by the community. That such must be its effect, it is easy to see: at least, it is easy to see how the contrary course would serve as a standing recommendation to the public to esteem the teacher for his works' sake, if for nothing else.

But passing from this, we find another class of causes operating to depress the business of teaching, and standing in the way of its taking rank as a profession. These we find in *the character and course of public school teachers themselves.* It can not fail to be observed that a very large portion of those who engage in this field of educational labor are young persons—persons who apart from all questions of scholastic qualification, are immature in both age and experience.

Without charging this as their fault, (somebody's fault it is, and a grave one,) it must be apparent to any one, that its influence can not but be injurious. Men are not accustomed to put persons thus immature and inexperienced into positions of responsibility or dignity; they do not naturally look for them in such places; and they instinctively judge that business not to be of the highest order, which draws chiefly upon this class for its laborers. In the case of the learned professions, they find the more mature and manly element predominating; with one absurd exception, (their passion for young preachers,) they give their chief confidence to this elder class of professional men; and they judge the profession much in accordance with the personal dignity and weight of character which these men bring into it. Looking, however, at the business of public school teaching, and finding it almost exclusively filled with this youthful class, (personally worthy, it is true, but yet immature, inexperienced, and unestablished,) is it strange that their prevailing impression is; "Anybody can teach school; school teaching is easy;" and, under this impression, can they well fail to look down upon the business as altogether inferior and non-professional?

Then, too, how large a proportion of these young teachers are, in intelligence and culture, but slightly elevated above the community itself. It may be their misfortune and not their fault, that while they stand out

before the common people as educational leaders, they do not evidently stand above and beyond them as educational superiors. But fault or no fault, the tendency of this fact is unmistakably to drag down the calling itself to an unfortunate and unworthy level. An intellectual calling rises in evident importance and in the public estimation just in proportion as its representatives show themselves in capacity and culture to be a superior class. Let then any of the professions—let, for example, the ministry which from its inherent dignity might be supposed able to add, at least, a factitious importance to its followers—let the ministry people itself with preachers of this merely common, if not inferior order, and nothing short of a miracle would suffice to save it from actual contempt.

Beyond this, though the topic is a delicate one to touch upon, the fact that a majority of our public school teachers are women, has its influence. For ourselves we accept this predominance of women in our public schools as the legitimate result both of the extraordinary demand of our school system for teachers, and of her naturally superior fitness for the species of labor required; and we as heartily deprecate the popular tendency to under-estimate her worth or the value of her labor, as we condemn the absurd efforts of the lop-sided few to unsex her capacities and exaggerate and distort her sphere. But the facts are here, and we are neither so squeamish nor so stupid as to do other than look them square in the face.

Of these first, it is a fact that the public do not and will not look upon a business chiefly employing the labor of women, as of equal severity or importance with one demanding the services of men. Now as the learned professions are altogether of this latter class, while public school teaching belongs so largely to the former, it is easy to see what must be the result of any comparison of the two, and what must be the spontaneous impression of the public mind as to the professional dignity and importance of school teaching. It can not and will not be apprehended as a profession at all.

Then again, without attempting any philosophical explanation of the fact, women do not appear to be professionally constituted. Waving the mooted question of intellectual adaptation, it may be doubted whether they possess enough of the instinct of organization to secure a true professional combination and coöperation. Certain it is, that the contingencies of their sex and the necessities of domestic life, offer an almost unsurmountable obstacle in the way of that undivided and undiverted persistence in the business as a life pursuit, which is one of the two prime characteristics of a profession. Now while it would be stupid to suppose this to be any disparagement of woman, it is as stupid to discover in it no power to depress the business of school teaching below the level of the professions, and to prevent it from becoming one.

Once more, the sheer pecuniary interests which induce many to take up the business, and the temporary devotion of the great majority to its pursuit, are enough of themselves to produce the most disastrous results.

It is true that, with one exception, the pecuniary interest enters largely into the grand object in the pursuit of the various professions. But even where the moral element does not predominate, there are other ends which blend with, and modify the otherwise mercenary character of the controlling motives. Common sympathy with the suffering, or the ambition to become distinguished in his calling, enter into the aims of the physician; and the attainment of the ends of justice or the love of fame largely mingles with the lower aspirations of the lawyer. Among them all, you will find at least this one higher aim standing out in the true professional character; that of maintaining and advancing the general reputation of the profession itself.

But it will hardly be affirmed that this is a characteristic of the business of public school teaching. Confessedly, very many seek its paths of employment for merely some barren interim in which they have nothing else to do: others as a mere means of obtaining funds for the advancement of some other and foreign aim: others as a sort of "dernier resort" after failure in their original and more ambitious line of effort; and so on through a half-dozen subordinate and inferior ends of endeavor. And so of all those who engage in the work of teaching in our public schools, probably nine tenths never entertain the thought of pursuing the work of teaching chiefly for the good it will enable them to do; or with the generous ambition to advance the true interest and the real dignity of the calling; or at all designing to make it, for any purpose, a true life-work, something or all of which is absolutely necessary to its taking rank as a profession.

While, however, we think this ground well taken, we would not seem chargeable with unsympathizing severity in our judgment as to this class of teachers. Many do as well as they have learned to do: their aims are as high as could be gathered from the teachings of the schools or the tone of the public sentiment. Many of them are, at heart, much in advance of both of these influences, and possess a latent enthusiasm, genial and generous, and only awaiting the noble touch of the true spirit to awaken it. But all this does not answer to neutralize the ill results of the fault pointed out. The tacit admission involved in the course pursued, that the business of teaching is only good for mercenary uses; that it is only important for present and temporary ends; in short, that its steady and life-long pursuit with a professional pride and devotion, is not to be thought of—this can not but depress the business and debar it from being accepted as a profession.

But passing on, we find causes for this depression of the business of teaching, in *the absence of a deep and genuine interest on the part of the public in the cause of education*, and in the course consequently pursued with reference to school affairs. Much is said about the public interest in education. And truly, in none of the professions are the people more vitally concerned than they are in the business of the teacher. In his hands lies that first development and bias of the growing mind,

which ultimately become the measure of the popular intelligence and virtue; and how deeply the whole civil, social and business welfare of the community are involved in that intelligence and virtue, is well known. It would naturally be supposed then, that this would suffice to make the whole feeling and action of the public, with reference to public schools and public school teachers, watchful, intelligent, earnest, generous, and even self-sacrificing. And yet he who accepts this as, in any important part, true, "is indebted to his imagination for his facts."

For observe, now, the course pursued by the public in the premises. Take the majority of the district school-houses, in their site, architecture, finish and appliances, and, compared with the dwellings of the people themselves, what a peculiar public concern for the reputation and comfort of the school, they indicate. Look at the grade of teachers generally first sought; the low rate of compensation with which they are expected to be joyfully content; and at the provision usually made for their accommodation, and what a profound public esteem for the work of the teacher does it evince. Observe, too, how often the schools are visited by their patrons, their operations and wants inquired after, and the teachers and pupils recognized and encouraged, and what a lively and lovely solicitude as to their welfare does it all show. Inquire into the character and qualifications of the men usually chosen as school officers, school commissioners, and sometimes even school superintendents, and notice the general principles which, in most of the states, govern their selection, and see what an intelligent design to secure the best good of both the schools and the teachers, they reveal.

Now it needs not that we go into the details of this neglect, nor matters it that we trouble ourselves little about its philosophy. Its folly is enough for us, and the fact that it must have its effect upon the business of teaching to discredit and degrade it. For it must be patent to every candid mind, that whatever other circumstances might favor the business, from under the mountain of this general and abusive unconcern and neglect, (we might say contempt,) it can not be expected to rise and assume its rightful position, or put on any thing like the look of a true profession.

Before passing from this part of our subject, which we propose to do presently, it is proper to remark that we have not, as has doubtless been observed, urged, as among these causes of professional depression, what is so commonly referred to as the great want of the business of public school teaching, and its grand hope of professional establishment, namely: *organization*. This has been, not because we are disposed to undervalue organization as a means of mutual improvement, nor because we would in any way discourage the attempt to secure it; but because we believe its absence to be an effect of the present condition of the business of teaching, and not a cause of it; it is the legitimate, and, perhaps, the most mischievous result of the neglect and abuse to which the calling has been so long subjected. Not because of this or that, is teach-

ing yet unorganized as a profession; but because public-school teachers do not take a higher rank in culture and devotion to their work; because the public treat the whole business as a mere hirelingship and second to every thing else at that; and because the state robs it of its inherent right of self-regulation, subjects it to an absolute rule as a mere labor, and overclouds it with official incompetence in its high places; because of all this, it has not yet attained, and we fear, can not attain for some time to come its proper organization as a profession.

Turning our attention now to the second general division of our subject, we find that *the means of remedying the evil* of which we have spoken, of securing to the business of school teaching a professional standing and importance, may almost be inferred from the considerations which have already been urged. The grand means of attaining that doubtless desirable end, it must be apparent to every one, is simply the elevation of the business itself, the development in it, of the intrinsic characteristics of a true profession.

This intrinsic merit is essential. Among free and enterprising democracies like our own, rank or position may be mistakenly allowed for a time, but it can not be arbitrarily bestowed and established. With all their heedlessness and blindness, people will eventually come to the knowledge of the truth, and will revise their judgments, more or less in accordance with the standard of merit. Hence, excepting in the field of politics, charlatans and impostors sooner or later, in spite of their imposing lion-skins, come to exposure and grief; and shallow philosophies and impracticable schemes, notwithstanding the art of unscrupulous sophists and enthusiastic devotees, speedily reach a "most lame and impotent conclusion." And so with business; however you may by extraneous efforts give them for a time importance and character, only as the intrinsic character corresponds with the position and importance claimed, will they be allowed to retain a real and permanent rank. Hence, we may take this as a truism; public school teaching must really become a profession before it can be one.

This intrinsic elevation of the business of teaching may be sought through different channels; through the use of means both extraneous and internal. Among the former may be placed, first, a wiser and juster action on the part of the public, an improvement not at all hopeful in its prospects, but yet worthy the diligent endeavor of the friends of the school teacher. The people should take a deeper interest in all that pertains to their school system. It must come to be their especial ambition to have the best school-houses and the best teachers. The old "penny-wise and pound-foolish" system of boarding the teacher around, should be discarded. The visitation of the schools by the patrons should be made a business. School officers of all kinds should be chosen with sole reference to qualification. The intrusion of politics or mere political men into school affairs, should be utterly denounced by the community. Just so far as any of these ends are secured, will the business of teaching advance in dignity and importance.

The State also needs to reform its action in some respects. We confess, we have very little expectation that it will, for if there is a direction in which legislation is seen to be bull-headed, it is in fashioning its school systems. But the changes demanded are important, and no pains should be spared in the endeavor to bring the State fully into them. Of these, first, the State should change its policy as to relative appropriation for the respective objects; the support of schools, and the training of teachers. Let it rather do less for the former, than not do more for the latter. We take the broad ground, that if the State will provide the proper teachers, they will make the schools what they should be; and if, through the efforts of able teachers, the schools are made what they should be, the people will support them, and, if need be, without state bounty. The law is a plain one; good workmen will produce a good article, and a good article will command a good price.

To illustrate what we mean, we will take a specific case and apply our main principle. Take for example the State of New York. She employs in the course of a year in her public schools 15,807 different teachers. Of these, at the least calculation, 12,000 are permanently needed. For the direct professional training of these 12,000 teachers, she has provided *one* normal school at an annual expense of 12,000 dollars, and *one* training school (that rather the product of private enterprise) at an annual expense to the State of 3,000 dollars: an aggregate of *two* institutions and an annual appropriation of 15,000 dollars. But for the training of these teachers, the State should never have thought of providing less than five first-class normal schools, and then, with no expectation of doing her work worthily, short of ten, in the ultimate. What she does for the support of teacher's institutes is all well, but subserves temporary rather than permanent ends. What she does for the support of so-called classes in the academies, hardly deserves mention, since the 16,346 dollars she appropriates to them, is practically a mere sop for the academies. So far as the thorough preparation of teachers is concerned, every one conversant with the facts knows that it is money misapplied, if not thrown away.

Now how easily the State of New York might do better, may be seen from the fact that she has that 16,346 dollars properly belonging to the work of sustaining normal schools at command. Besides this, she appropriates 55,000 dollars a year for district school libraries, which can not be indispensable, since recently an urgent effort was made to divert 25,000 dollars a year, for two years, from that fund, to the purpose of depositing in the various school-houses in the State, that piece of fossilized pedantry "Brown's Grammar of English Grammars." But even granting those libraries a reasonable value, no one can doubt the more direct and powerful utility of the four or five normal schools which might be supported from that fund alone. In all this estimate, let it be observed, we have not touched the 205,391 dollars which she appropriated from the school fund directly to the schools, and from which we

candidly believe, less benefit is derived than would accrue from the devotion of some good part of it to the direct education of teachers in normal schools proper.

But again, the State should relinquish what, but for that we would "press not a falling man too far," we should be tempted to term its usurped authority to determine the right of membership among teachers.

As in law, medicine, and divinity, so in teaching, should the man be dependent on no functionary alien to his class for his professional imprimatur. The teacher's standing should be determined by his peers alone. To subject him to examination by some mere civil functionary, who has, as is too often the case, no natural sympathy with him, and no necessary competence for the work, can never consist with the thorough elevation of the class in either capacity or self-respect. Throw that work upon the teachers, and they will soon come to be more ambitious to attain high qualifications; they will guard the entrances to the calling with greater jealousy; they will be drawn together in closer and more profitable associations; and will feel more deeply their professional responsibility. Let the State, then, emancipate her teachers; let her secure to them their professional rights and immunities, and she will find them not only advancing, but doing far better themselves the work she has so unwisely taken out of their hands.

Among these external means of elevating teachers and teaching may also be included that organization to which reference has already been made. While, as we have intimated, organization can not, as we fear too many fancy, create a profession, it may, by securing interchange of ideas, unity of effort, a just *esprit de corps*, and a systematic watch over the qualifications and conduct of the membership, subserve the ends of improvement to a most important extent. Organize then, by all means, as fast and as far as it can be done effectively. Fling about these teachers as fully as you can, those close but kindly bonds which will, for all the purposes of their noble calling, bring them together as one man.

But beware of what seems to be almost a common and characteristic vice of all attempts at organic association among teachers, that of extreme catholicity in membership. Looking at some of the so-called "*Teacher's* Associations," with their curious conglomerate of clerical, authorial and peripatetic educationists; of publication agents and school functionaries; and last, and not far from least, teachers living and actual, and teachers *soi disant* and practically defunct, we can almost fancy each one speaking of itself with characteristic complacency, in the language of that absurd hybrid which it might well take as its peculiar symbol;

> "Then all the *dry, pied things* that be
> In the hueless mosses under the sea,
> Would curl round my silver feet silently.

And if I should carol alone, from aloft,
All *things* that are *forked* and *horned* and *soft*,
Would lean out from the hollow sphere of the sea,
All looking down for the love of me."

Now, we respectfully submit that if teachers are to be organized as a profession, this must be reformed altogether. Educational conventions are eminently well and necessary; but associations of teachers must be such truly, if the class are ever to attain a just professional independence and self-respect.

With reference to what we have called the internal means to be employed for the elevation of teachers as preparatory to their taking rank as a professional class, we need hardly go into detail. The necessity of higher scholastic attainments and of larger professional skill, is universally conceded, and has been substantially affirmed in what has gone before. In that direction we have only one thing we care to suggest, and that is, that teachers themselves should give more attention to general culture. We believe that, even where they seek extensive attainments, they are too apt to restrict themselves to that which is purely scholastic or technical. Hence, we believe that they are not only less happy in their methods of instruction, but they are less interesting and influential both in the school and the community, than they would be were they possessed of a larger fund of general information and greater personal accomplishment. To gain these, they should make much more of thorough reading and of the study of literature; they should pay greater attention to personal matters and polite address, and should somewhat carefully cultivate an acquaintance with society and public affairs. These go further towards creating a professional standing and influence than mere bookish learning or pedagogic preëminence. They make the teacher not less the teacher, but much more the man or woman.

On one more point, and only one, we would speak, and that carefully, since we are inclined to give it great importance; we mean, the need of higher moral aims in teaching. To a certain extent, the public school teacher must work for pay, for like all workers, he must live, and, in one sense, money is life. Beyond and higher than this, he may and will labor to produce intellectual results. He will be naturally and properly ambitious to develop mind and to perfect order in his school. This is, in one sense, more than life, for successful achievement is happiness.

But there is that which is, as we believe, thoroughly germane to his business, and both higher in nature and happier in results than either of the foregoing. It is possible for the teacher, while not neglectful of his pecuniary interests or his ordinary intellectual duties, to look upon his position as one of benevolent opportunity and moral importance. We see no reason why the humane feeling and spiritual aspirations of the true philanthropist or the christian minister, should not have place in the heart of the earnest teacher. Looking at the opportunities he enjoys of doing good to both the body and the soul of his precious charge—op

portunities more frequent, immediate, tender and hopeful than those common to even the pastoral office, we believe he would be no more than true to his own moral obligations and to the just claims of his calling, were he to devote himself to teaching, as preëminently as the minister to preaching, *for the sake of doing good.* And we are not sure that a terrible responsibility does not rest upon that man or woman, who goes to work upon that tender, that impressible, that priceless, that imperishable thing, the mind of the little child, with no feeling sense of the profound mystery of its being; of the perilous nature of its environing influences, and the painful uncertainty of its final fortunes; and who, consequently, goes to work upon it with no tender and solemn determination to compass its moral renovation as well as its intellectual development.

We are not saying that all teachers are prepared for this sacred part of their office-work, (we wish for their own happiness, more of them were;) we do not claim that all of them could be equally successful in fulfilling its holy mission, (we wish for the glory of their calling more would make what effort they can;) we make no promise that they would in this noble endeavor, meet with no difficulties, with no sharp antagonisms, (the truth is no more palatable from the teacher than from her other apostles;) but we do believe and urge that the more general cultivation and pursuit of this higher aim among teachers, would go far, not only towards securing the most benign results in the schools and neighborhoods, but also towards relieving the business of teaching from much of its assumed littleness and unimportance; towards ennobling it as one of the organized humanities, if not one of the spiritual agencies, of the times. The effect of this upon teachers as a class, to dignify them in the eyes of the public, to endear them to the lovers of the race, and to establish them in their own conscious worthiness, can not be questioned.

Such, then, are the means we would employ to relieve the business of public school teaching from its present depressed condition and to raise it to the rank of a profession. We are by no means saying that even they are equal to the task of effecting that desirable end. There are difficulties, which we have noticed in the foregoing, which they do not meet. Some of those difficulties are, as we have shown, inherent, and therefore ineradicable. Still it is not impossible, in the surmounting of the rest, to sink those comparatively out of sight. The cause is worthy of an earnest and persistent effort to accomplish even that. To that effort let all true teachers earnestly address themselves, making this their motto:

> "We'll shine in more substantial honors,
> And to be noble we'll be good."

II. THE CONNECTICUT STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.*

THE first Association of Teachers in Connecticut and, so far as the records show, in the United States, was organized at Middletown, under the name of "The School Association of Middlesex County."† This Society was in existence as early as May, 1799, and owed its origin chiefly to the efforts of its first president, the Rev. William Woodbridge, who was then instructor of a female school in Middletown and had already introduced many of those plans of instruction that have since been deemed recent improvements. Its objects were to promote a systematic course of school education, to secure the inculcation of moral and religious principles in the schools, and to endeavor to elevate the character and qualifications of teachers. There is evidence that it gave a great impulse to the cause of education in the county, and its recommendation was considered among the best testimonials of a teacher's fitness for his office. But the effort was premature and in a few years the Association had become extinct, though from it may have sprung the present "Friendly Association of Upper Middletown," which held its first meeting in February, 1810, and numbered William C. Redfield among its early members. The discussions in and out of the Legislature, which grew out of the sale of the "Western Reserve" lands and the appropriation of the avails to the support of common schools, gave a general impulse to the educational interests of the State.

Nothing more was done in the way of associated effort until the Lyceum movement was started by Josiah Holbrook in 1826, which had for one of its objects the association of teachers for mutual improvement, and one of the earliest societies of this kind organized was that of Windham county, by Mr. Holbrook himself, assisted by Rev. S. J. May. Some twenty of these institutions existed as late as 1838, and they are, indeed, still represented by the Young Men's

* See Barnard's "*History of Common Schools in Connecticut.*"

† See Barnard's American Journal of Education, XIV., 397.

Institutes and similar organizations in some of the cities, but the teachers have rarely taken a prominent part in their proceedings.

Early in 1827, a "Society for the Improvement of Common Schools," perhaps the first of the kind in this country, was formed in Hartford, of which Hon. Roger M. Sherman, of Fairfield county, was president. The records of only a single meeting are preserved. In 1830 a more active interest was awakened among teachers themselves. County associations of teachers were formed, at Bridgeport in October, and at Norwich and Windham in November of that year, and on the 10th of the latter month a General Convention of teachers and friends of education was held at Hartford, of which Noah Webster, L L. D., was president. It was numerously attended from all parts of the State and included a large body of teachers. Addresses were delivered by Pres. Humphreys, of Amherst College, on "*The Educational Wants of the State;*"* by Rev. G. F. Davis, of Hartford, on "*The Qualifications of Teachers;*" by Dr. Webster, on "*The English Language;*" by Dr. W. A. Alcott, on "*The Location, Structure, and Ventilation of School-houses;*" by Rev. W. C. Woodbridge, on "*Vocal Music in Schools,*" and by Mr. Evans. Animated discussions followed. Many of these lectures were afterwards repeated in other parts of the country, and were published and widely distributed. Information was obtained, through school officials and teachers, of the condition of schools in the State, which, together with the proceedings of the Convention, was laid before the next Legislature, and in part published and circulated. The Windham County Convention of 1827 and 1832 published an "Address to the Parents and Guardians of Children, respecting Common Schools;"—as did that of Tolland County in 1827.

These associated movements were but parts and beginnings of the long struggle, maintained by a few brave souls, to raise the common school system of Connecticut from the low level to which it had then sunk—a struggle in which the first substantial success was the passage of the Act of May, 1838, "for the better Supervision of Common Schools," and the consequent appointment of a Board of Commissioners of Common Schools. By appointment of this Board, conventions were held in the fall of 1838 in every county of the State, consisting of delegates from the school societies, teachers, clergymen, &c. These meetings were addressed by Hon. Henry Barnard, Secretary of the Board, Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, and others. At each of these conventions a "County Association" was

* For a sketch of this address, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, V., 138.

formed "for the Improvement of Common Schools," which held at least one meeting annually down to 1842.

On the 28th and 29th of August, 1839, a State Convention was held at Hartford, called by the Secretary of the Board, at which Hon. Seth P. Beers, Superintendent of Schools, was President, and Hon. T. S. Williams and Rev. Dr. Field, Vice-presidents. Lectures were delivered by Prof. C. E. Stowe, on "*The Necessity of Increased Effort in the United States to Sustain and Extend the Advantages of Common School Education;*" by Thomas Cushing, Jr., of Boston, on "*The Division of Labor as Applied to Teaching;*" and by A. H. Everett, on "*The Progress of Moral Science.*" An essay was read from Mrs. L. H. Sigourney, on "*The Cultivation of the Perception of the Beautiful in Common Schools.*" Discussions were held on Vocal Music in Schools; and on the best methods of improving the condition of schools in cities and large villages, with accounts of the schools of Boston, Cincinnati, New Haven, and Massachusetts, and the unanimous recommendation of a system of graded schools wherever possible. Besides resolutions upon the improvement of school-houses, classification of schools, school libraries, Teachers' Seminaries, &c., it was voted "That an association of teachers, for the purpose of mutual instruction and the visitation of each other's schools, be formed in each school society throughout the State." In pursuance of this recommendation the teachers of more than fifty towns or societies organized associations for the purposes specified, and under the direction of Mrs. Emma Willard, an Association of the Mothers of the School Society of Kensington was formed.

In the autumn of the same year, the first Teachers' Institute, so far as known, was held in Hartford, for the teachers of the county, under the invitation and preliminary arrangements of the Secretary of the Board, and at his expense. During the existence of the Board, from 1838 to 1842, every effort was thus made to enlist the influence of "association" in behalf of education, but few of the numerous societies first formed seem to have prospered, and none survived the abolition of the Board by the Legislature of 1842. The plan of a State Association was drawn up shortly afterwards by Mr. Barnard, but the friends of school improvement were too much discouraged to undertake it. This scheme was first published in May, 1846, in connection with the Prize Essay of Prof. Noah Porter, Jr., "*On the Necessity and Means of Improving the Common Schools of Connecticut,*"* which recommended, among other means,

* The plan may be found in Barnard's Jour. of Ed., I., 721. The Essay is republished in the same Journal, XIII., 344.

the organization of a State Association and ably urged the efficiency of Teachers' Institutes.

As this able and stirring Essay had been called forth by the liberal prize offered by J. M. Bunce, Esq., of Hartford, so to the liberality and energy of the same person and other gentlemen of Hartford is due the success of the subsequent movements, which resulted in the formation of the STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION. These gentlemen met on the evening of the 14th of October, 1846, to consider the advisability of making arrangements for a convention of the teachers of the county. Rev. Dr. Joel Hawes was chairman, and C. W. Bradley, secretary, of the meeting. It was unanimously determined to call such a convention and a committee was appointed to make the necessary arrangements. This committee, consisting of D. F. Robinson, C. W. Bradley, J. M. Bunce, G. Robbins, and N. L. Gallup, issued a circular on the following day, "To Teachers, School Committees, and Friends of Common School Education in Hartford County." In the call they state "the object of the convention to be the improvement of district schools. Gentlemen skilled in the art of teaching will be present, to give instruction in the various branches of study, to discuss the different methods of teaching and governing, and to lecture upon those subjects which have a practical bearing upon all the interests of the school. Teachers from the several towns will participate in the discussions, and give the results of their own experience in the school-room. They invite all, of both sexes, who are now teaching, or expect to teach during the coming winter, to be present. *Many*, we are assured, will come; we desire ALL to come—to come at the commencement and remain till the close of the convention." Rev. Merrill Richardson, of Plymouth, was employed to visit different sections of the county and by lectures and private conversations to awaken a deeper interest in the subject of common school education.*

The success of this Convention was almost unprecedented and surpassed the most sanguine expectations of its originators. Two hundred and fifty-three teachers were present, besides the many citizens and strangers that attended the meetings. The Convention was organized at the time appointed, Nov. 16, 1846, and continued its sessions from Monday until Saturday. The Rev. T. H. Gallaudet was appointed President, and Rev. M. Richardson and N. H.

* It is due to the truth of history to state that the suggestions to Mr. Bunce for the premium or prize for the best essay, of holding a Teachers' Institute, or Convention, and of employing an agent to visit different parts of the State, were made by the late Secretary of the Board, at the time Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island.

Morgan, Vice-presidents. The exercises were of a practical character, full of interest and profit, the teachers in many cases assuming the positions of scholars, and in the record the names of Dr. W. A. Alcott, Rev. Dr. Bushnell, Rev. Walter Clarke, Rev. Mr. Gallaudet, N. L. Gallup, Rev. Dr. Hawes, J. E. Lovell, J. H. Mather, N. H. Morgan, J. D. Post, Rev. Mr. Raymond, Rev. M. Richardson, Rev. Mr. Trumbull, and G. W. Winchester appear most prominent.* This Convention was soon followed by similar meetings in other parts of the State—at Winsted in November, December, February, and April, an association being there organized styled the "Winchester and Vicinity Institute of Instruction"—at Tolland, January 4th—at Ellington, January 19th—at Litchfield, in February and April, &c.

The Superintendent of Common Schools, Hon. Seth P. Beers, in his report to the Legislature in May, 1847, recommended an appropriation for the encouragement of similar meetings in all the different parts of the State. One thousand dollars was accordingly appropriated for the purpose, to be expended under his direction, and two "schools of teachers" were held in each county in the months of September and October of that year. In these schools "about fourteen hundred teachers were brought together to discuss and hear discussed every topic connected with their profession, and to drill and be drilled in all the studies of the public schools." Mr. Richardson was selected by the Superintendent to make the preliminary arrangements for these Institutes, to whose previous services Mr. Beers had thus referred in his report:—"For the large attendance on this Convention (at Hartford) and the increased activity given to the public mind on the whole subject of schools, much credit is due to Rev. Mr. Richardson, of Plymouth. Himself a teacher and practically acquainted with the operation of our school system from several years' experience as a school visitor, he has been enabled, through private liberality, to devote himself untiringly and enthusiastically and with great success to the work of encouraging and enlightening teachers, school officers, and parents, by public addresses and private interviews. In addition to these modes of action, he has conducted a monthly periodical called the 'Connecticut School Manual.'" This Journal was commenced in January, 1847, and continued two years. The only previous publication of the kind was the "Connecticut Common School Journal," commenced by Henry Barnard, as Secretary of the Board of Commissioners, and sustained until the abolition of the Board and the completion of its

* The proceedings of this Convention may be found in the Connecticut School Manual, I., 4.

fourth year. Its publication was resumed in September, 1851, and has been continued till the present time, (1865.)

ORGANIZATION OF THE ASSOCIATION.

The subject of the formation of a State Association had been brought forward at nearly all the Institutes that had been held in 1847, but no definite action had been taken. In March, 1848, a convention was called by the Board of Visitors of the town of Meriden, with this object in view. It met in Meriden, April 4th–7th, 1848, and was attended by teachers from five counties of the State. It was called to order by D. N. Camp, Clerk of the Board, who was also appointed to act as secretary of the meeting. The subject of a Teachers' Seminary was discussed and a committee was appointed to petition the Legislature for its establishment. The expediency of forming a State Association of Teachers was then presented by Mr. Storrs Hall, of Norwalk; a plan was reported, a constitution was prepared and adopted, and the Association was finally organized on the 7th of April by the election of the following officers:—Rev. M. Richardson, *President.* J. D. Giddings, Hartford; S. A. Thomas, New Haven; A. Pettis, Norwich; Storrs Hall, Norwalk; Miles Grant, Winsted; N. Robbins, Woodstock; S. Chase, Middletown; N. P. Barrows, Mansfield, *Vice-Presidents.* D. N. Camp, West Meriden, *Recording Secretary* and *Treasurer;* and R. B. Bull, Essex, *Corresponding Secretary.* Resolutions were passed recommending the formation of County Associations, and adopting the "School Manual" as the organ of the Association.

The Fairfield County Association had been previously organized in Dec., 1846, and many town associations, probably more than a hundred, had been revived or newly formed during the winter of 1847–8.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE ASSOCIATION.

First Annual Meeting.—At New Haven, August 16th, 1848. Rev. M. Richardson, President. The following officers were elected for the year:—S. A. Thomas, *Pres.* N. L. Gallup, Hartford; Jonathan Dudley, New Haven; A. Pettis, S. Hall, H. E. Rockwell, N. Robbins, R. B. Bull, and N. P. Barrows, *Vice-Pres.* D. N. Camp, *Rec. Sec.* and *Treas.;* and H. D. Smith, *Cor. Sec.* Addresses were delivered by Messrs. Richardson, T. D. P. Stone, Hall and Camp. It was resolved to continue the "School Manual," but its publication was afterwards found inadvisable.

An adjourned meeting was held in Hartford, December 1st.

Second Annual Meeting.—At Hartford, Dec., 1849. The proceedings of this meeting were not published.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Wallingford, Oct. 9th, 1850. The Association was addressed by Hon. Henry Barnard, Storrs Hall, and D. N. Camp. The officers elected were Henry Barnard, *Pres.* T. D. P. Stone, S. A. Thomas, S. Hall, B. F. Hilliard, George Sherwood, E. T. Fitch, F. C. Brownell, and Edwin Talcott, *Vice-Pres.* D. N. Camp, *Rec. Sec.* and *Treas.* E. S. Cornwall, *Cor. Secretary.*

During his presidency, Mr. Barnard labored to bring the teachers of the State into an active participation in the work of school advancement, and to the responsible management of all the essential agencies of professional improvement. The Association was specially invited to the opening exercises of the State Normal School, at which meeting arrangements were made to hold the Fourth Annual Meeting by adjournment in every county, in connection with a series of County Teachers' Institutes. This meeting commenced at New Britain on the 29th of September, and met by adjournment at Stafford on the 7th of October; at Washington on the 10th; at Colchester on the 13th; at Naugatuck on the 17th; at Essex on the 21st; at Norwalk on the 25th; at Glastenbury on the 27th; and at Ashford on the 30th. At the opening of the annual meeting at New Britain, the President pronounced a discourse on the "*Life, Character, and Educational Services of Thomas H. Gallaudet,*" and at the subsequent adjourned sessions, on "*Teachers' Associations and Institutes;*" "*The peculiar Difficulties and Advantages of Schools in Agricultural Districts;*" "*The Personal Agencies of a Successful System of Common Schools;*" "*The Educational Wants of Manufacturing Districts;*" "*The relations of Parents to the Public School;*" "*Gradation of Schools in Cities and Villages;*" "*Libraries and Lectures as Supplementary Agencies of Popular Education.*" Addresses were also delivered by Prof. Olmsted, of Yale College, on "*The Ideal of a thoroughly Educated Community,*" and on "*The Gift of Teaching;*" by Prof. Camp, on "*The Nature of Education,*" and "*The True Teacher;*" by Prof. Collins Stone, of the American Deaf-Mute Asylum, on "*Modes of Teaching Dull and Inactive Minds;*" by Prof. Stone, of the State Normal School, on "*Physiology as a Study in Common Schools,*" and on "*School Discipline;*" by Mr. W. S. Baker, on "*Teaching the Alphabet,*" "*The Applications of Arithmetic to the Every-day Business of the Farmer and Mechanic,*" "*The Neglected Youth of the State,*" "*The Duties of the State;*" by Mr. Curtis, Principal of the Hartford High School, on "*The Duties and Rewards of the Teacher;*" by Prof. Ayres, of the Deaf-Mute Asylum, on "*The Teacher's Duties to*

Himself." These topics were also discussed by members present in a less formal way. Over twelve hundred teachers were present at the different meetings, and arrangements were made for commencing a new series of the Connecticut Common School Journal.

An adjourned meeting was held at New Britain, Dec. 2d, 1851, at which the following officers were elected:—Rev. T. D. P. Stone, *Pres.* E. B. Huntington, W. S. Baker, George Sherwood, G. W. Yates, E. M. Cushman, N. L. Gallup, E. D. Chapman, and Rev. Albert Smith, *Vice-Pres.* D. N. Camp, *Rec. Sec.* T. W. T. Curtis, *Cor. Sec.* F. C. Brownell, *Treas.*

Fifth Annual Meeting.—At New Haven, Aug. 18th, 1852. This meeting was held on occasion of the session of the American Institute of Instruction at New Haven. At this meeting, with the large accession of members and confidence in their own strength, inspired by the increased interest of the last two years, it was resolved to conduct the operations of the Association in future on a more independent footing. The constitution was revised so as to provide for two sessions in each year, and to extend the term of the office of president to two years, and the exclusive management and proprietorship of the Connecticut Common School Journal was tendered to the Association by Mr. Barnard. Certain it is that henceforth the Association manifested more vigor and exerted a greater influence than it had yet at any time done. Rev. E. B. Huntington was elected president, to hold office for two years, under the amended constitution.

Meetings were held in May, 1852, at Norwich Town, Bristol, Kent, New Haven, and New Britain, with addresses from Messrs. Barnard, Camp, and others, in connection with the Teachers' Institutes for those counties, which were held by the Superintendent of Common Schools.

Sixth Annual Meeting.—At Middletown, Oct. 24th and 25th, 1853. Addresses were delivered by the President, E. B. Huntington, on "*The Necessity and Advantages of a State Association;*" by Prof. T. A. Thacher, on "*College Education and its Connection with Common School Education;*" by Prof. Jackson, of Trinity College, on the same subject; by Rev. Dr. Adamson, on "*The Study of Natural Science;*" by Prof. Johnston, of Wesleyan University, on "*Physical Exercise;*" and by Rev. Thomas Clark, D. D., on "*Narrow-mindedness.*" An extended discussion was held on "*Collegiate, Academic, and High School Education,*" and reports were received respecting the condition of schools in the several counties.

The semi-annual meeting, as provided by the constitution, was held at New Haven, May 10th and 11th, 1854, and was addressed by W. C. Goldthwaite, of Westfield, Mass., on "*Permanent Results;*" by Dr. Worthington Hooker, on "*The Method of Teaching Physiology;*" by Rev. G. W. Perkins, of W. Meriden, on "*The sure Aim and Methods of Education, as deduced from God, the great Educator;*" by Hon. Mr. Barney, of Ohio, on "*The Ohio School System;*" and by Hon. Francis Gillette, on "*The Wants of Common Schools.*"

The Legislature of this year made an annual appropriation of $250 to the Association, on condition that there should be sent to every School Society of the State a copy of the "Connecticut Common School Journal," which had now been adopted as the organ of the Association.

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Norwich, Oct. 23d and 24th, 1854. Addresses were made by Rev. J. P. Gulliver, on "*The Importance to the Teacher of Forming a Perfect Ideal of Education;*" by D. N. Camp, on "*Elementary Education;*" by Dr. B. N. Comings, on "*Physical Education;*" and by J. L. Denison, of Mystic. The subject of a State Agency and the means of sustaining it was fully discussed and the Board of Directors were finally authorized to appoint an agent, who should devote his whole time in promoting the objects of the Association, visiting schools, lecturing, conferring with teachers and school officers, procuring subscriptions to the Journal, &c. Mr. George Sherwood was subsequently engaged by the Board, and was actively employed during the year in the duties of his office.

The following officers were elected:—David N. Camp, *Pres.* J. E. Lovell, F. F. Barrows, George Sherwood, S. Chase, L. L. Camp, W. Foster, Jr., W. R. Kingsbury, *Vice-Pres.* J. W. Tuck, *Rec. Sec.* C. B. Webster, *Cor. Sec.* F. C. Brownell, *Treas.*

The semi-annual meeting was held at Hartford, May 8th and 9th, 1855. Addresses were delivered by Prof. C. A. Goodrich, on "*English Orthography;*" by J. D. Philbrick, on "*School Libraries;*" by Rev. Mr. Huntington, and by Rev. Dr. Clark, on "*Enthusiasm in Teachers.*" Short addresses were also made by Messrs. H. Barnard, D. F. Babcock, F. Gillette, Gov. Miner, Dr. Hawes, and Rev. E. B. Beadle. Reports were received from the State Agent, and from the different counties. A special committee was appointed to present a memorial to the Legislature proposing amendments to the School Law.

A second semi-annual meeting was held at Bridgeport, Oct. 15th

and 16th, 1855, at which addresses were delivered by Messrs. J. W. Tuck, J. D. Philbrick, D. B. Scott, on "*The Teacher and his Motives;*" and Rev. Tryon Edwards, D. D., on "*The Power of High Aims.*"

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At New Britain, May 5th and 6th, 1856. Addresses were delivered by W. H. Wells, of Westfield, Mass.; Prof. A. F. Crosby, M. T. Brown, of N. Haven, on "*Free Schools, and Rate Bills;*" E. F. Strong, Rev. F. T. Russell, and Elihu Burritt. The abolition of Rate Bills was made a prominent subject of discussion. The following officers were elected:—John D. Philbrick, *Pres.* M. T. Brown, T. W. T. Curtis, G. Sherwood, A. S. Wilson, J. S. Newell, E. R. Keyes, and M. L. Tryon, *Vice-Pres.* E. F. Strong, *Rec. Sec.* J. M. Guion, *Cor. Sec.* F. C. Brownell, *Treas.*

A semi-annual meeting was held at New London, Oct. 13th and 14th, 1856. Lectures were delivered by Prof. A. Jackson, on "*The English Language;*" by Prof. Bailey, on "*Teaching Reading;*" by Rev. Mr. Willard, on "*Self-Education;*" and by Charles Northend, on "*The Teacher and his Work.*" Discussions were held on the necessity of Public High Schools in all the larger towns, and on the subjects of most of the lectures. It was voted that the semi-annual meetings should be discontinued.

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Meriden, June 4th and 5th, 1857. This was one of the largest and most successful meetings that had up to this time been held. Addresses were given by T. W. T. Curtis, of Hartford, on "*Common Schools and their Improvement;*" by Rev. M. Richardson, on "*Free Schools;*" by Elbridge Smith, of Norwich, on "*Libraries;*" and by Charles Hammond, of Groton, Mass. Officers were elected as follows:—T. W. T. Curtis, *Pres.* C. G. Clark, Augustus Morse, C. W. Todd, A. S. Wilson, J. G. Lewis, Amos Perry, E. R. Keyes, and L. L. Camp, *Vice-Pres.* E. F. Strong, *Rec. Sec.* G. W. Tuck, *Cor. Sec.* F. C. Brownell, *Treas.*

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Stamford, June 2d, 3d, and 4th, 1858. Addresses were delivered by Prof. Samuel Elliott, on "*The Early Scholars of America;*" by S. R. Colthrop, of Bridgeport, on "*Physical Education;*" by D. C. Gilman, of New Haven, on "*The Relative Duties of the Teacher, School Visitor, District Committee, and Parents;*" by J. D. Philbrick, on "*Moral Education;*" and by G. H. Hollister, on "*Common School Education.*" The officers elected were—E. F. Strong, *Pres.* F. F. Barrows, N. C. Board-

man, J. W. Allen, H. A. Balcam, C. W. Todd, E. R. Keyes, C. H. Wright, and J. H. Peck, *Vice-Pres.* George Fellows, *Rec. Sec.* C. Northend, *Cor. Sec.* F. C. Brownell, *Treas.*

ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Danielsonville, June 16th and 17th, 1859. Addresses were delivered by Prof. M. Bailey, on "*Reading;*" by Rev. M. Richardson, on "*Free Schools;*" by Rev. W. Burton, of Cambridge, on "*Home Education;*" by Dr. Calvin Cutter, on the same subject; and by E. B. Jennings, of New London, on "*The best Means of Educating the Masses.*" Reports were received upon the condition of schools in the different counties. The following officers were elected:—E. F. Strong, *Pres.* J. N. Bartlett, C. C. Kimball, J. S. Lathrop, C. H. Wright, C. F. Dowd, A. S. Putnam, Lucian Burleigh, and E. B. Jennings, *Vice-Pres.* E. R. Keyes, *Rec. Sec.* J. C. Howard, *Cor. Sec.* L. L. Camp, *Treas.* This meeting was reported as one of the most industrious and hard-working that the Association had ever held.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bridgeport, Oct. 18th and 19th, 1860. Addresses were given by A. A. White, on "*The School-room as an Educator;*" by J. W. Bulkley, on "*The Duties of Parents and Teachers;*" and by E. L. Hart, on "*The Duties of Teachers to their Profession.*" The following officers were elected: J. W. Allen, *Pres.* F. F. Barrows, *Rec. Sec.* J. C. Howard, *Cor. Sec.;* and J. W. Bartlett, *Treas.*

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Hartford, Oct. 31st and Nov. 1st, 1861. One of the largest, most harmonious and profitable educational meetings ever held in the State. Addresses were delivered by Hon. D. N. Camp, on "*Education in Connecticut;*" by N. A. Calkins, on "*Object Lessons;*" and by J. D. Philbrick, on "*Spelling.*" The Association also met in graded sections for appropriate discussions and instruction. Messrs. Aug. Morse, G. F. Phelps, E. B. Jennings, E. F. Strong, C. F. North, L. Burleigh, J. N. Farmer, and H. Clark, were elected *Vice-Pres.;* the remaining officers being reëlected.

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Waterbury, Oct. 30th and 31st, 1862. The attendance at this meeting was unusually large, numbering between three and four hundred, of whom three hundred were ladies. Lectures were delivered by Charles Northend, on "*The History of Educational Movements in the State;*" by A. N. Lewis, on "*The Schools and School Teachers of Connecticut;*" by Augustus Morse, on "*The Teachers of the Present Day;*" and by Rev. L. Burleigh, on "*The Parent and Teacher.*" Discussions were

held upon "*Methods of Recitation;*" "*Truancy, its Causes and Cure;*" "*Study out of School;*" "*Motives to be used for securing Study;*" "*Number of Studies;*" "*Prizes in School;*" also, "*Methods of Instruction in Geography, Mental Arithmetic, Object Lessons, and Reading.*" The President was instructed to bring the subject of Truancy before the Legislature for its action. The following officers were elected:—Augustus Morse, *Pres.* J. N. Bartlett, G. F. Phelps, W. L. Marsh, L. Burleigh, A. N. Lewis, J. M. Turner, B. B. Whittemore, and C. H. Wright, *Vice-Pres.* F. F. Barrows and J. C. Howard, *Sec.;* and Chauncey Harris, *Treas.*

FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Rockville, Oct. 29th and 30th, 1863. The attendance was large. Lectures from J. N. Bartlett, on "*The Influence of School Life upon the Scholar;*" and by B. B. Whittemore, on "*Elocution and Reading.*" Discussions were had upon "*The Bible and Religious Education in Schools;*" "*To what Extent Pupils should be Assisted;*" and on "*Spelling.*" Former officers were reëlected, with the substitution of Messrs. P. B. Peck, W. W. Dowd, and H. R. Buckham, for Messrs. Burleigh, Whittemore, and Barrows.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At New London, November 17th and 18th, 1864. Addresses were delivered by J. D. Philbrick, on "*The Self-education of the Teacher;*" by Prof. D. N. Camp, on "*School Classification and Studies;*" and by Hon. Francis Gillette, on "*Education and a Republican Government.*" The means of increasing the efficiency of common schools, and the most advisable mode of continuing the "Common School Journal," were made subjects of discussion. Committees were appointed to petition the next Legislature for improvements in the School Law, and for an act to prevent Truancy.

President.—J. N. BARTLETT.
Vice-Presidents.—E. B. JENNINGS, H. W. AVERY, A. N. LEWIS, DR. H. M. KNIGHT, J. M. TURNER, N. C. POND, C. H. WRIGHT.
Recording Secretary.—L. L. CAMP.
Corresponding Secretary.—JABEZ LATHROP.
Treasurer.—J. KELLOGG.

The ANNUAL MEETING for 1865 was held at Willimantic on the 26th and 27th of October.

Lectures by Prof. T. H. Thatcher, of Yale College, on the "*Importance of Common Schools;*" by Prof. D. C. Gilman, Secretary of the Board of Education, on "*Horace Mann, and the Lessons of his Life;*" by Dr. H. N. Knight, Superintendent of School for Imbeciles, on "*Physical Education;*" and by J. W. Allen, Principal of Central District-School, Norwich, on "*National Education.*"

Prof. D. N. Bartlett was reëlected President,

PRESIDENTS OF CONNECTICUT STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

REV. MERRILL RICHARDSON.

MERRILL RICHARDSON, one of the founders and the first President of the Connecticut State Teachers' Association, was born in Holden, Mass., in 1810. After an elementary and preparatory collegiate course in the District and High School of his native town, he entered Middlebury College, where he graduated in 1831. He commenced keeping school at the age of seventeen in Rutland, Mass., and followed the same vocation in the winter until he was settled over the Congregational Society in Terryville, (Plymouth,) Conn. Here he took an active interest in the supervision and improvement of common schools. An address delivered before the School Society of Plymouth in December, 1842, on "Common Schools and the essential features of a Teachers' Seminary," was printed and widely circulated. In the educational work inaugurated by James M. Bunce, Esq., of Hartford, after the abrogation of the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, Mr. Richardson took an active part. He was particularly efficient in getting up the Convention or Institute of the teachers of Hartford county in October, 1846, which numbered 250 members and gave a powerful impulse to the educational movements of the State. Out of it grew the "*Connecticut School Manual*," a periodical which he edited for two years, 1847–48, and a series of Teachers' Institutes, or Conventions.

HENRY BARNARD, LL. D.

HENRY BARNARD, the second President of the State Teachers' Association, was born in Hartford, Conn., Jan. 24, 1811—received his early education in the district-school—fitted for Yale College at the Academy at Monson, Mass., and the Grammar School of Hartford, and graduated in 1830. After graduating, he devoted two years to a systematic course of general reading, including a brief period of teaching—two years to travel in this country in connection with a study of the history, biography, and the physical, and social condition of each State—three years to the study of the law as his future profession, in the office of Hon. Willis Hall, New York, and the Law School of Yale College—and two years to foreign travel, with an extensive course of reading in reference to the same before his departure and on his return. Soon after his return from Europe he was elected for three years in succession to the State Legislature, and became so interested in the improvement of the common schools and other means of popular education, that he resolved to give up the legal profession and the chances of a political career, for which he had made the most elaborate and costly preparation, and devote himself to the work of securing the universal education of the whole people, and the best education of the largest number which could be secured by a system of public schools. For an account of his educational labors, see American Journal of Education, Vol. I., pp. 659–738.

and re-read Virgil. In March, 1836, he opened a private school in Mansfield,



David N. Camp

DAVID N. CAMP, A. M.

DAVID N. CAMP was born in Durham, Connecticut, October 3, 1820, and received in the district-school and academy of his native town a thorough English education, which was made doubly valuable, mentally, by one winter's experience in teaching the Center district-school in Guilford, and physically, by a few months' varied practice on the farm for several summers. In his eighteenth year he commenced preparation for college in reference to the clerical profession, but, in attending the Teachers' Institute or class at Hartford in the autumn of 1839, where he was brought in daily conversation and instruction with Thomas H. Gallaudet, Henry Barnard, and the conductors of that Institute, he caught the prevailing enthusiasm for educational improvement, and determined to make teaching his life work, although he did not abandon his plan of a collegiate course as preliminary to a thorough course of professional training. But a severe illness leaving his eyes weak, he resumed school teaching—for five terms in the central district of Branford, and for the same period, in the Meriden Academy or Institute, until 1850, when he became assistant in the State Normal School at New Britain, associate principal in 1855, and principal in 1857. In virtue of the last office, he became State Superintendent of Common Schools, until September, 1864, when on the separation of the two offices, he resumed the exclusive duties of principal of the Normal School. From 1847, when the State made provision for the holding of a Teachers' Institute in each county, Prof. Camp has devoted a portion of each year to their instruction and management—more than one hundred and fifty in all, and embracing an attendance of over 10,000 teachers. He was a member of the committee appointed in 1847 to call a convention of teachers for the organization of the State Teachers' Association in 1848, was its first Secretary, its President in 1847, and has attended every meeting and taken part in the regular addresses and discussions of each meeting. He has gathered every year with the teachers of the county at the annual meetings of the American Institute of Instruction, the American Association, and the National Teachers' Association. Prof. Camp is the author of a revised edition of Mitchell's Outline Maps, and of a series of Manuals for teaching Geography.

REV. ELIJAH B. HUNTINGTON, A. M.

ELIJAH BALDWIN HUNTINGTON, son of Deacon Nehemiah Huntington, was born in Bozrah, Ct., Aug. 14th, 1816. Having attended the district-school, summer and winter, until twelve years of age, and during the winter until sixteen, he in the last term commenced the study of Latin, and in the following spring, in his father's kitchen, so far mastered Flint's Surveying as to be employed in measuring land in the neighborhood. In his seventeenth year he entered upon the study of medicine, still continuing his Latin, and in 1834 was engaged to teach a district-school in Salem, Ct., at $9.50 per month, "boarding round," a room and fire having been pledged by the committee. He was complimented at the close of the school for doing what had not been done for the nine preceding years—carrying the school through without a successful rebellion—which was due to the sympathy and influence which his well-known habits of study out of school had upon the pupils of his own age. This winter, without aid, he went through Goodrich's Greek Lessons and Grammar, and read and re-read Virgil. In March, 1836, he opened a private school in Mansfield,



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David N. Camp



Ct., which he continued until he entered Yale College in the Fall. At the commencement of Sophomore year his collegiate studies were interrupted by ill-health and want of means, and he resumed his school.

For several years Mr. Huntington prosecuted teaching and study, as his health permitted—going over the regular college studies and pursuing a theological course, and was licensed to preach in 1845. After laboring for the American Bible Society in Windham county, Ct., and Worcester county, Mass., he was successful in gathering together and at length organizing a congregation in what is now the town of Putnam, Ct. Here he devoted himself also to the cause of common school education, employing about one-third of his time in the schools and with the teachers of the town and county. He drew up an elaborate report of the condition of the schools of Thompson in 1849, which was published in the State Superintendent's report. In the following year he was employed by the Superintendent, Hon. Henry Barnard, to visit, examine, and report upon the schools of Windham county, which report was also published.

His voice failing in the pulpit, Mr. Huntington, in the spring of 1851, accepted the charge of the Graded School in West Meriden, and in the fall of 1852 was invited to Waterbury as principal of the High School and superintendent of the city schools, where he remained until December, 1854, when he was called to the charge of the Graded School at Stamford. These several schools were conducted with marked ability and success. On resigning the Stamford school in 1857, he opened a private boys' school, which was continued until 1864, since which time he has been engaged in a compilation of the history of Stamford and other literary labors.

Mr. Huntington was one of the Trustees of the State Normal School for New Haven county, while resident in that county; was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1852, and has frequently lectured before Lyceums, Teachers' Associations, and Educational Conventions. Several of his lectures and addresses have been published, and his pen has also been employed in the local newspapers for educational and religious purposes. He received from Yale College in 1850 the honorary degree of Master of Arts.

THOMAS W. T. CURTIS.

T. W. T. CURTIS was born at Epsom, New Hampshire, April 18th, 1823. He prepared for college at the academy at Pittsfield, N. H., and graduated at Dartmouth in 1844. Having had some previous experience in teaching in district-schools, he, after graduation, was principal of Brackett Academy at Greenland, N. H., during the year 1844–5; then taught for three years in Virginia and North Carolina, and afterwards for three years had charge of the Oliver High School in Lawrence, Mass. In 1851 he was appointed principal of the Public High School at Hartford, Conn., which position he resigned in the autumn of 1862 and established in the same city a Young Ladies' Boarding School, of which he is still (1865) principal. He was elected President of the State ers' Association in 1857.

EMORY F. STRONG

FOOTE STRONG was born at Bolton, Conn., Oct. 10th, 1827. He at- eral academical schools in addition to the public schools of his native tained his classical education and preparation for college chiefly at Academy under the instruction of Charles Hammond. He had

early made choice of the ministry as a profession, but was induced to defer entering college and to take charge of a school at Rockville for a year, at a salary of $400. Even before entering the Monson Academy he had taught a winter school in the district of Eastbury for $10 a month and "board around," sometimes wading through two miles of snow-banks of a winter's morning and then building his school-house fire. At the expiration of the year at Rockville he had become so much interested in the occupation of instruction that he gave up, though reluctantly, his former cherished plans, and made teaching his profession. In 1853 he left Rockville for a school in West Meriden, and in 1855 was appointed to the High School in Bridgeport at a salary of $1,200. He was here the pioneer in the matter of free schools and advocated the measure in public meetings and through the local press, and was actively interested in the erection of new school-houses and other measures of reform. In 1862 he left this position and established a Military School with which he is still (1865) connected.

In 1858 Mr. Strong was elected President of the State Teachers' Association and reëlected the following year. In addition to his other school duties he has for several years been active in building up and maintaining Mission Sunday-Schools, and has acted as chaplain in connection with a mission service in the county jail.

AUGUSTUS MORSE, A. M.

AUGUSTUS MORSE was born in Hardwick, Vt., April 9th, 1808. He commenced the practice of the profession, to which his life has been devoted, in the winter of 1823, in a district-school in Walden, Vt. During the following winter he taught in Peacham, and for nine winters in succession in Hardwick, in the same State, usually working upon a farm in summer and attending school during the autumn at an Academy. He now went to Castleton to complete his preparation for college, and entered Middlebury College in 1833. After teaching in New Haven, Vt., and again at Castleton, he obtained leave of absence for six months during his Junior year, to take charge of the Latin Grammar School in Cambridgeport, Mass. He here remained, however, through the year, was then principal of the Academy at Nantucket for nearly two years, when he was placed at the head of the High School in the same town, which position he held for sixteen years. Visiting Middlebury at this time, he received the Master's degree, and in 1855 removed to Hartford, Ct., to take charge of the North Grammar School, where he is still engaged. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1862, and was reëlected in the following year.

COUNTY EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

I. SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF THE COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX, CONN.

The School Association of the County of Middlesex, Conn., was in existence in May, 1799, and how long before we have not ascertained. It was probably the growth of the discussion which the disposition of the *Western Reserve* lands created in the Legislature and among the people between the years 1796 and 1799. The following "code" for the Government and Instruction of Common Schools, drawn up by the Rev. William Woodbridge, (father of William C. Woodbridge, the geographer and educator,) President of the Association, and, at that date, Principal of a Female School in Middletown was addressed by this Association, to the Visitors and Overseers of schools:

REGULATIONS FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF SCHOOLS.

In the acknowledgment of all men of goodness, policy, or wisdom, the proper education of youth is an object of the first importance to society. It is the source of private virtue and public prosperity, and demands the best practical system of instruction, aided by the united exertions and patronage of the wise and good. From a solicitude to promote this very interesting and most important object, the following regulations are respectfully submitted to the consideration of the Visitors and Overseers of Schools—by the *School Association of the County of Middlesex.*

Instructors and scholars shall punctually attend their schools, in due season, and the appointed number of hours.

The whole time of instructors and scholars shall be entirely devoted to the proper business and duties of the school.

Every scholar shall be furnished with necessary books for his instruction. In winter, effectual provision ought to be made for warming the school-house in season, otherwise the forenoon is almost lost.

The Bible—in selected portions—or the New Testament, ought, in Christian schools, to be read by those classes who are capable of reading decently, at the opening of the school before the morning prayer. If this mode of reading be adopted, it will remove every objection of irreverence, and answer all the purposes of morality, devotion, and reading. Some questions may be very properly proposed and answered by the master or scholars; and five minutes, thus spent, would be a very profitable exercise of moral and other instruction.

Proper lessons, and fully within the scholar's power to learn, ought to be given to every class each part of the day. These daily lessons ought to be faithfully learned and recited to the master or his approved monitors.

One lesson in two or more days may be a review of the preceding lessons of those days; and one lesson in each week a review of the studies of that week.

The sum of this review, fairly written or noted in the book studied, may be carried by the scholars, each Saturday, to their respective parents or guardians.

Scholars equal in knowledge ought to be classed. Those whose progress merits advancement should rise to a higher class; and those who decline by negligence, should be degraded every month.

The hours of school ought, as much as possible, to be appropriated in the following or a similar manner, viz:

In the morning, the Bible may be delivered to the head of each class, and by them to the scholars capable of reading decently or looking over. This reading, with some short remarks or questions, with the morning prayer, may occupy the *first half hour*. The second may be employed in hearing the morning lessons, while the younger classes are preparing to spell and read. The third in attention to the writers. The fourth in hearing the under classes read and spell. The fifth in looking over and assisting the writers and cipherers. The sixth in hearing the under classes spell and read the second time; and receiving and depositing pens, writing and reading books.

In all exercises of reading, the teacher ought to pronounce a part of the lessons, giving the scholars a correct example of accent and emphasis, pauses, tones, and cadence. In all studies, the scholars ought to be frequently and critically observed. The teacher's eye on all his school is the great preservative of diligence and order.

In the afternoon, one half hour may be employed in spelling together, repeating grammar, rules of arithmetic, and useful tables, with a clear and full, but soft voice, while the instructor prepares pens, writing-books, &c. The second and third half hours in hearing the under classes, and assisting the writers and cipherers. The fourth in hearing the upper classes read. The fifth in hearing the under classes read and spell the second time. The sixth in receiving and depositing the books, &c., as above.

That the school be closed with an evening prayer, previous to which the scholars shall repeat a psalm or hymn—and also the Lord's prayer.

Saturday may be wholly employed in an orderly review of the studies of the week, except one hour appropriated to instruction in the first principles of religion and morality, and in repeating together the ten commandments. That the catechism usually taught in schools be divided by the master into four sections, one of which shall be repeated successively on each Saturday.

Any unavoidable failure of the master in the time of attendance on school ought to be made up by him. Absence of the scholar ought to be noted for inquiry.

Parents should aid and encourage the scholars in studying proper lessons at home, especially in winter evenings, which are the better part of the day. For slow will be the progress of the scholar without the aid and encouragement of the parent.

To these regulations there is, in equity, an equal right of appeal to the overseers of schools, both for parents and teachers, in all matters of dispute. It appears indispensably necessary that a proper system of school regulations should be delivered both to parents and teachers; and also to be frequently read, explained, inculcated, and urged upon the scholars.

The teacher becoming accountable to the parents and overseers for the faithful instruction of his school, has a right to expect—First, due support in government from both—Second, proper books of instruction and morality, manners and learning—Third, the steady and punctual attendance of his scholars, and diligence in their studies. Failure on one part can never be entitled to fulfillment on the other.

That there be opened, in every school, a register containing the following records, viz.:

1st. Time of entrance, continuance, and departure of each scholar and master.

2d. The names of all whose example in good manners and orderly conduct, have been beneficial to the school, which shall stand on the honorable list during the continuance of their good character and conduct.

3d. The names of the three best scholars in every class and branch of learning at the end of each half year.

4th. The names and crimes of every one who is guilty of lying, stealing, inde-

cency, fighting, or Sabbath-breaking. These, on evidence of reformation, shall be erased.

5th. That a record be kept of all the names and donations of those who shall generously give prizes or books for the encouragement of learning and good manners.

That the virtuous and diligent may be encouraged and rewarded, and the vicious discountenanced and punished, this register shall be open to the parents and visitors of schools, and read on days of public examination.

A proper system of manners ought to be drawn up, suited to the age, situation, and connections of children in society. This will answer for a rule of duty, and appeal in all cases of trial. In all charges, the complainant shall ascertain the fact—the law broken—the reason of the law—and the probable consequences to society—to the offender—the whole proving the duty and benevolent design of prosecution.

A short system of morality ought to be compiled for the particular use of children—illustrated by familiar examples, and applied to their particular rights and circumstances. "When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child."

Effectual measures ought to be taken to convince children that their whole conduct is the object of perpetual cognizance and inquiry in the parent and teacher, the minister of the gospel and the civil officers.

All instruction in morals and manners is most clearly illustrated and most effectually enforced by example. Consequently, good and evil examples are among the first of virtues and worst of vices in society, and ought to be punished or rewarded.

Books of reading and spelling, morality and manners, in general use, should be the property of the district and under the master's keeping, and by him to be delivered to the scholars; for the following reasons: 1. A much less number will answer. 2. They will be bought cheaper. 3. Kept better. 4. Better answer all purposes—for a class using any set at school may study in them at home. 5. Such a plan would encourage donations and furnish a school library for various and occasional reading.

All school laws and regulations should be clearly understood and frequently inculcated. Reason and rule should go together. Persuasion and encouragement should first be tried—admonition and caution may perhaps be proper in every instance for the first offense. Caution, reprimand, and assurance of the necessity of punishment *may* be sufficient for the second fault. But a *second crime* should *not* be passed over without evident proofs of inadvertence or true penitence. A third instance of deliberate breach of plain orders—of repeated faults or crimes—demands immediate chastisement. All punishments should be —1. Safe, and attended with instruction—the rod and reproof give wisdom. 2. Never given up until the offender is submissive and obedient. Necessity or prudence may oblige *us* to vary, *discontinue* or *delay* a punishment—but to give up would be the destruction of all government.

These, or similar regulations, gentlemen, we think indispensably necessary to the *well* being and general utility of schools. They are, therefore, with all due deference to your wisdom, respectfully presented to your consideration.

Middletown, May 7th, 1799.

FEMALE COMMON SCHOOL ASSOCIATION

IN THE EAST DISTRICT OF KENSINGTON, CONN.

As AN example of associated effort on the part of the mothers and women of a district or town for the improvement of schools, we introduced from the Connecticut Common School Journal for 1840 extracts from various communications and official documents respecting the organization and results of an "Association of the Females of a School-district in Kensington"—a portion of the town of Berlin in Connecticut. We introduce a letter of Mrs. Emma Willard, the author of this plan of school improvement, and more than any person, living or dead, the originator and demonstrator of our present advanced views and methods of female education, by the same remarks which, as Commissioner of Common Schools and Editor of the Common School Journal, we published in 1840.

From the outset of our labors in this field, we have been sensible of the vast influence for good which the mothers of a district or society might exert by more active individual or associated efforts, in behalf of common schools. They stand at the very fountain of influence. The dress, manners, books, regularity, and punctuality of attendance, and the review or preparation of school lessons at home, of the children, depend mainly on them. Let the mothers of a district read, converse, and become well informed, as to what constitutes a good school, become acquainted with the teacher, visit the school-room, see in what close, uncomfortable, and unpleasant quarters their children are doomed to spend their school hours, the vast amount of time, during each session of the school, they, especially the younger, are unemployed in any useful exercise, and the bad or inefficient methods of government and instruction too often pursued by the teachers, whom school visitors have licensed to teach the children of others, not their own, and the schools can not remain where they are. They will make their houses too hot for their husbands, or brothers, or grown up children to remain at home in, when district or society meetings for the improvement of these schools are to be held, or to come back again if they have, from a poor economy which usually defeats itself, voted against every proposition to repair the old, or build a new school-house, or to employ a teacher of proper qualifications, because of the expense. The following communication from Mrs. Willard gives the outline of an association of women for this purpose, which we regret she could not have remained in Kensington to have carried out.

We have seen another plan, for visitation, of more easy execution, which is this. Let a district be divided into sections of two, four, or six families, accord-

ing to its size. Almost every district would thus furnish some eight or ten or twelve sections, and let it be the duty of one of these sections, to visit the school every week, say on Friday, or some other set day, until the circuit of the district has been made. If convenient, both the parents should go. We care not how it is done, but let the mothers go and see the schools as they are.

LETTER FROM MRS. EMMA WILLARD, ON A "PROPOSED PLAN OF A FEMALE ASSOCIATION TO IMPROVE SCHOOLS."

SIR:—Recollecting your request, that I would give you in writing the ideas which I had addressed to you verbally, on the importance of the coöperation of my own sex to the well-being of common schools, and of the manner in which it could be brought to bear, I determined to send you the outline sketch of a plan for a society, which was in agitation, and which would have been formed, had I remained in Kensington to spend the ensuing winter. There being in that society no compact village, the women were not so well situated for acting in an associate capacity, as in many other places. But had it been in my power to return, it would have been only on the condition that such associations should be formed. The improvements made would not then have been left to chance, as to their continuance; nor would a considerable number of the children, unfurnished with proper implements, have remained, after all, little benefited. The condition of the common schools, in several respects, appears to me affecting, like that of a large young family of widower's children. The father provides what he thinks is necessary, and there is perhaps an hired maid or an older sister, who looks after the little children, as well as she knows how. But where is the mother? Where is she whose watchful eye and yearning bosom would be the surest pledges of their growing intelligence and virtue? with her they were cleanly, orderly, and industrious. She felt their little wants, when the father did not; and her influence with him, or her own purse, was sweetly drawn forth to supply them; and the supply was not monthly to be renewed, on account of unwatched waste and destruction; for she admonished the little squanderers; took care, or obliged them to do so, of their minutest articles of neccssity. All this the united mothers might do for the common nursery of their children; and it is for the want of this supervision, that the common schools are in the forlorn condition in which many of them, throughout the country, are now found; and the best might be with it far better than they can be without it. Would that my sisters of this community would awake to the importance of the subject. If any should be inclined to do so, they may find the appended plan of a society useful in aiding them to begin. When, however, a newly invented machine is put into operation, some things may be found to need altering, although the principle on which it is formed is perfectly correct, and its chief parts rightly arranged; and in its first play some things may wisely be added, merely to overcome obstructions which its own motion will wear away. Such, for example, in this instance, is the putting, in the first place, two persons on committees, where hereafter an individual responsibility would better accomplish the object.

Yours with great respect,

EMMA WILLARD.

Kensington, Sept. 10th, 1840.

PLAN OF ASSOCIATION.

We, the undersigned, women of the East District of Kensington, do hereby associate ourselves, for the object of aiding, by our united exertions, the common school cause; especially by improving the condition of our own school.

We are moved hereto, by considering the vital importance of elevating by right education the common mind—by the endearing ties which bind us to the children of our own school—by the knowledge that it is the proper sphere of women, to take the care of young children—and by the consideration of the deficiencies heretofore experienced, and the need of united and efficient effort, as well as of some additional pecuniary means, to supply those deficiencies.

We do therefore determine, in the fear and by the favor of God, to associate ourselves in the solemn resolution that we will do whatever may be in our power, consistently with higher duties, to effect the object herein named, and we conceive that to no object will our highest duty, that to our Maker, more distinctly point, than that, as a body, the women of this district should see that the children within its bounds should be so trained as to become the blessings of this world, and the "blessed" of a better.

CONSTITUTION.

I. This Society shall be called the Female Common School Association of the East District of Kensington.

II. The officers of the Association shall be a President, Vice-President, Treasurer, Secretary, and such Executive Committees as the business of the Association may in their judgment require. These shall constitute a board of officers, who shall meet on the first Tuesday of every month, to receive reports, direct expenditures, and devise measures to effect the objects for which they are chosen.

III. This Association shall hold semi-annual meetings on ————————, at which times officers shall be chosen, those who have served shall make reports of their several proceedings, and the other business of the Society be transacted.

IV. Any female belonging to this district may become a member of this Association, by subscribing this Constitution, and paying fifty cents; and will continue to be a member by the payment of the same sum semi-annually; and any female not of this district may become a member by the payment of five dollars, she afterwards continuing, if she remains a member, to pay the same as the women of the district.

REMARKS ON ARTICLE II.

A committee, probably of two, will be needed, to obtain the names, residences, ages, &c., of all the children in the district, of suitable age to attend the school—to learn if any among them are hindered from the benefit of the school by any causes within our power to remove, (as by a degree of penury that deprives them of suitable clothing, books, &c.,) and if so, to see that those causes be removed, as far as our ability will allow, and the children properly clad, and otherwise provided, are sent to the school; or otherwise report be made to the Board of Officers, or to the Association, or as the case may be, petition, in behalf of the needy, the proper male authorities.

Another committee of the same number will be needed to inspect the accommodations of the children and teacher within the school-house and without, to see whether such things are provided as are needed for health, comfort, and cleanliness, and to make purchases under such restrictions as shall from time to time be agreed on—to take care of such things in their department as may be already provided, and to report to the Board of Officers, and to make due reports to the Association concerning all matters within their department.

Another committee would be needed, whose business it should be, to spend a certain time in the school, to become acquainted with the character and management of the teacher, and the progress of the pupils, and their behavior in school, in order that they may bring the influence of the Association to coöperate with the teacher, to carry out plans of improvement—to see that her efforts are not hindered by small items of expense, which there is no one to meet, relating to books of a similar kind for classes of the same degree of improvement, slates, blackboards, &c.—to purchase these under suitable restrictions, and also

to make purchases of cheap and useful apparatus, when the funds of the Society will admit. The reports of such a committee to the associated mothers of the children might be the means of incalculable good, by showing them how often the teacher's exertions are brought to naught by the irregularity of their children's attendance—how much each might do in her own family to make the authority of the school respected, and otherwise to aid the teachers in the work of improvement, and thus to produce results which will tell upon her own future happiness; for who can weigh, or measure, or estimate the difference to a parent, to a mother especially, between a good child, coming forward to be a good man or woman, and a bad child, growing up to be miserable in himself, a torment to his family, and a pest to society. And how many such have died an untimely death, with curses upon careless mothers.

For this committee on the literature and regulations of the school there would be needed well-educated, judicious, and public spirited women, who would spend enough of their time in the school to become acquainted with any improvements which may at any one time be made in the school, so that such improvements shall not be lost by a change of teachers.

The character and management of the teacher would, of course, fall under the observation of such a committee. Incompetence and unfaithfulness should be detected and treated accordingly, and so should the reverse of these qualities. The good and faithful teacher is worthy to be the companion of the mother and sisters of the children they teach.

The plan thus set forth was in the following year acted upon, and Mrs. Willard, in an address prepared at the request of the Western College of Teachers in 1842 and read before many educational conventions and associations in several States, after setting forth the necessity and modes of women's coöperation, thus speaks of the results of the experiment in Kensington:

These are no visionary speculations impracticable in action. Their development has already begun. Among the green hills of Connecticut, where perhaps some of your association sported in childhood, there is a little band of mothers conjoined in a society, and it may be, at this moment, collected in the schoolhouse of the district, to devise and execute the best plans for the good of their gathered children. Their constitution and laws bind them to learn the condition of every one in the district, and if any lack, to provide the needed raiment. Another article enjoins them to observe the condition of the school-house and its furniture, the accommodations of the children and their teacher, so that comfort and health may be regarded, and habits, proper and cleanly, may be formed. Another part of their duty, which requires the talents of their educated members, is to enter into their course of study, and with the advice of male committees, to order what classes shall be formed, and what works shall be studied, and those to provide.

It was but last May that this little society began its operations, and already the fruits of their labors are manifold and precious. The children are clean. Their school-room is whitewashed and made neat in every corner. Without you may see an eaves-trough, and a vessel to hold rainwater, and in an ante-room a neatly scoured form for pails and drinking cups and wash-basins, with towels hung above. New furniture is provided for the teacher. She is ex-officio a

member of the association, and is a young lady of talents and not without friends, nor wholly without fortune. She was liberally educated; but she caught the spirit of improvement, and undertook and now performs her labor with a far different spirit than the love of gain. She feels ennobled by giving her efforts, not here neglected, to a generous cause. The cry of unsuitable school-books, and a want of conformity even in these, is no longer here. The mothers have found a way to obviate this, as they may every serious impediment to the proper training of their children, if they will come forward in their united strength. Look upon the western wall of the school-house and you see a book-case locked. It contains the library these mothers have purchased for the school. Their teacher is their librarian. If parents are poor, the use of the books is free, but if able to pay, the society receive four, six or eight cents, according to the value, on each volume used in the season. This will keep their fund good to purchase new ones when needed, or when it shall be resolved that new studies shall be introduced; and they find that a great saving is to be made of family expenses, by this plan of providing school-books for their children; no money-loving author will there put out a good work and introduce a bad one, by flattering the vanity or tampering with the honesty of the teacher. She, as is proper, is but the agent of the mothers; therefore, if she leaves the school, there need be no change of studies.

Go with me to this school and listen to the recitations. The children are taught to articulate without toning. The little ones have their slates, on which they print the letters of the alphabet; the larger have their blackboards, on which they state and work their sums in arithmetic, or illustrate geographical studies by drawing maps. They are taught spelling and composition simultaneously, by writing sentences on familiar subjects, or concerning their lessons. The most advanced class compose familiar letters. This class are this season learning "Chemistry for Beginners;" and at home the mothers are delighted to observe them engaged in their simple experiments. No idle stray books are here read to give false principles in morals, to foster a maudlin sensibility, or teach the children a style more childish than their own. The precious hours of school reading make them acquainted with the Bible, and with their books of study, which they are taught to understand and explain. When they are merry, they sing. They are not kept more than an hour confined, before they are allowed to sport in the wood just by, or on the green bank of the hillock, on which the school-house stands—fortunately at some distance from the public road. It is in the town of Berlin, among the beautiful brooks and groves of Kensington, that this favored spot may be found.

Not only have these mothers improved their children but themselves. Instead of gay parties for their daughters, they have in some cases invited a class, it may be, of geography or chemistry, to their houses, and themselves examined them in their study. The regular meeting of the society has been held one afternoon of each month at the school-house, when they have first heard the children recite, and then dismissing them, have proceeded to the business of the society, their industrious hands perhaps employed in the meantime in making garments for the destitute.

The field opens before them as they advance. They have made discoveries of conveniences to be provided, of discomforts and dangers to health and physical constitution to be guarded against, which, but for their personal attention, they would never have dreamed of.

III. VERMONT TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

The earliest educational conventions in Vermont of which there appears to be any record were held in the winter of 1830–31, and were connected with the movement in behalf of lyceums, which had become so general throughout the Union. These meetings were held in all the counties of the State, and were attended by Mr. Holbrook, the originator of the system. Weekly meetings of teachers, semi-annual county conventions, and the use of apparatus in schools were recommended, and committees were appointed and times specified for town and county meetings to organize lyceums or associations for the improvement of schools and the advancement of education in general. Four or five County Lyceums were formed at the time, and town associations also in several places in the State. Some of these Lyceums continued in operation for several years, but there is very little upon record respecting them.

The information at hand respecting subsequent movements is imperfect and our record consequently will probably be defective. The "Annals of Education" for June, 1836, contains a notice of a State Convention of teachers and others, to be held at Montpelier on the 23d of August, and a list is given of the subjects proposed for discussion. No notice, however, is given of the holding or proceedings of the meeting. The friends of education in Windsor county met at Windsor, March 13th, 1839—Hon. Horace Everett, President; E. C. Tracy, Secretary; and Rev. J. Tracy, of Boston, Rev. J. Richards, and Dr. E. E. Phelps, a Business Committee. Hon. Jacob Collamer delivered a lecture upon "legislation in regard to common schools," and the following resolutions, which show the questions and spirit of the times, were adopted:—

Resolved, That the interest of the Surplus Revenue, instead of being used to diminish the taxes merely, ought to be employed for the *improvement* of common schools, either by providing better houses, by purchasing libraries and apparatus, by establishing model schools, by keeping up a school of a high character in each town for the whole year, by continuing the several district schools for a greater part of the year than now, or in such other way as the several towns and districts may judge expedient.

Resolved, That this Convention regards with peculiar interest those institu-

tions in which particular attention is paid to the qualification of teachers for common schools, and that we cordially recommend to our community such institutions as especially deserving of patronage.

Resolved, That we recommend the introduction into our common schools of branches higher and more numerous than those now customarily taught, so far as can be done by adopting elementary works of history and science as reading books.

Resolved, That the Convention recommend the formation of a permanent County Association for the promotion of popular education, and that a meeting be held in Woodstock, on the first Tuesday of June next, to organize said Association.

Resolved, That great benefits would result from the introduction of libraries and apparatus for illustration into primary schools.

Hon. J. Collamer, Rev. J. Thurston, and Rev. Z. Bliss were appointed a committee to secure a general representation at the proposed meeting and to make the necessary preliminary arrangements.

In 1842, several important meetings were held in behalf of an improved system of education for the State. A convention had already been held at Brandon in 1841. A second was held at Middlebury, January 13th, 1842, of which Hon. W. C. Kittredge was chairman, and Hon. Harvey Bell, secretary. Many of the best informed and most energetic men of the State were present and the whole subject of education, both by schools and colleges, came under consideration. Resolutions of a general character were adopted respecting the wants of the schools, and especially of the academies, discussed by Messrs. Kittredge, Merrill, Smith, Wheeler, Labaree, Stevens, of Barnet, Briggs, Clarke, Hallock, Stoddard, Starr, of Middlebury, Palmer, Adams, Prindle, Twining, and others. The chairman and secretary were requested to prepare and publish an address to the public upon the subject of a general system of education for the State, and the Convention adjourned to meet at Burlington on the 23d of February. At this meeting Gov. Paine presided, and G. B. Shawe and J. K. Converse acted as secretaries. The Convention was addressed by Prof. G. W. Benedict in relation to the legislation of the State upon education; by Rev. Mr. Peck, of Poultney, upon the common school system of New York, and upon the outlines of a system for Vermont; by Pres. Wheeler, upon the Massachusetts system; by Calvin Pease, upon the prevailing system of academical education; by Rev. Zenas Bliss, upon a system of education for the State; by Prof. Twining, upon the means of arousing popular interest and action in behalf of education; and by Dr. Leonard Marsh, on physical education. The action of the previous Legislature in providing for the collection of information and a report upon the condition of education in the State was approved and the following resolutions, among others, were adopted:

Resolved, That the defects in our present system of education can not be

remedied without enlightened legislative action, by which all our seminaries of learning shall be brought under the supervision of the State and receive that patronage from the government which they so highly deserve.

Resolved, That the only mode of securing this legislative action is by circulating information among the people—creating a correct public sentiment and producing such an interest among all classes of the community as will sustain the Legislature in the action proposed.

Resolved, That immediate, determined, and decided action for the production of these results, is the imperative duty of all the friends of education in the State.

Messrs. Pres. J. Wheeler, E. Fairbanks, E. C. Tracy, D. P. Thompson, and N. Williams were appointed a committee with power to call another convention and prepare business for its action.

Though no definitive action was taken by the Legislature in 1843 or 1844, public discussion was continued and the popular mind awakened to the need of improvement. Early in 1845 a convention was held in Middlebury, and Thomas H. Palmer was appointed to procure and publish authentic information respecting the school laws of the free States. Gov. Slade, in his message of Oct. 11th, 1845, to the Legislature, made an exposition of the defects of the law, and earnestly commended to their attention the subject of school supervision. On Oct. 18th, of the same year, a convention met at Montpelier for the formation of a State Society, of which Hon. James Barrett was chairman, and D. W. C. Clarke, secretary. The "*Vermont Society for the Improvement of the Common School*" —by diffusing information respecting the defects and deficiencies of the school system and the best methods of removing the one and supplying the other, and by promoting the formation of County and Town Societies—was organized by the election of the following officers:—Hon. S. H. Jenison, *President*. D. P. Thomas and T. H. Palmer, *Secretaries*. J. P. Fairbanks, and William Warner, *Executive Committee*, and twelve Vice-Presidents. We have no record of any subsequent meetings of this Society, and the principal subject proposed for its action was removed by the passage of the act of Nov. 5th, 1845, providing for town, county, and State Superintendents, the visitation of schools, examination of teachers, and annual County Conventions of teachers. Hon. Horace Eaton was elected Superintendent and continued in the diligent and faithful performance of its duties until 1851. The County Conventions of teachers, which the act required to be called by the Superintendents, seem not to have been generally held until some two years later. Teachers' Institutes, however, were commenced in 1846—the first in Washington and Lamoille counties—and soon became of general occurrence, though unassisted by the State. Several County Teachers' Associations were also organized, of which the earliest was

probably that of Caledonia county, in 1847. In May, 1847, the publication of the "*School Journal and Vermont Agriculturist*" was commenced by Messrs. N. Bishop and Tracy, at Windsor, and was continued three years—the first educational journal in the State.

A State Educational Convention of great interest met at Chelsea, Aug. 28th, 1848, and continued in session three days—Hon. Horace Eaton, *Pres.* Jason Steele and J. P. Fairbanks, *Vice-Pres.* N. Bishop and J. K. Colby, *Sec.* Discussions were held upon various questions—The proper studies for Common Schools, their proper order, and the modes of teaching them—School-houses—Qualifications of Teachers—Defects in Schools—and School Government. Addresses were also delivered by Rev. Addison Brown, upon the "*Nature and Means of Education;*" by Charles Northend, on the "*Duties of Parents in relation to Common Schools;*" by Rev. D. H. Ranney, on the "*Claims of Physical Education;*" by W. A. Burnham, on "*School Government;*" by Rev. T. Hall, on "*School Manners and Morals;*" by Gov. Slade, on "*Common School Education at the West;*" by W. D. Swan, of Boston, and by Gov. Eaton. The discussions and addresses were reported at some length in the "School Journal." In August, 1849, the American Institute of Instruction held a meeting of great interest at Montpelier.

In November, 1849, the act of 1845 was amended, the office of County Superintendent being abolished, and appropriations made in support of annual Teachers' Institutes—with other minor changes. This law continued in force until 1852, when the office of State Superintendent was suspended by the neglect of the Legislature to fill it, and the appropriations to the Institutes were withdrawn.

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The first suggestion in favor of a State Association of Teachers was made by Hiram Orcutt, early in the year 1850, in a communication to the Vermont Chronicle. A call was soon afterwards published for a meeting to be held at Montpelier on the 16th of October, for the organization of a State Society and for discussions upon the subject of education in Vermont. This call was signed by Messrs. J. K. Colby, C. G. Burnham, Asa Brainard, C. B. Smith, J E. King, I. O. Miller, L. O. Stevens, and B. B. Newton. Rev. H. P. Hickok was chosen chairman of the meeting, and S. H. Peabody, Secretary. The TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF VERMONT was duly organized by the adoption of a Constitution, declaring its object to be "to rouse from its slumbers the public mind, to interest and encourage the heart of the common school teacher, and to im-

press upon superintendents, teachers of Academies and higher seminaries, their great responsibilities as exponents of the public school interests," and the following officers were elected:—Rev. Worthington Smith, D. D., *Pres.* Hon. Horace Eaton, Rev. J. D. Wickham, J. S. Fairbanks, Rev. H. J. Parker, R. C. Benton, J. S. Spaulding, Hon. D. Marvine, M. Dwinnell, Rev. H. Orcutt, Hon. D. M. Camp, Rev. Chauncey Taylor, Rev. E. J. Scott, L. G. Meade, and C. B. Smith, *Vice-Pres.* I. O. Miller, J. K. Colby, and Z. K. Pangborn, *Sec.* Rev. H. P. Hickok, *Treas.* Rev. P. B. Newton, W. A. Burnham, and L. O. Stevens, *Ex. Com.* Resolutions were adopted, recommending the union of two or more school-districts, whenever practicable, and the formation of graded schools; urging a more rigid execution of the law requiring the annual examination of teachers; upon the need of a digest of the school laws, and against the repeal of the existing law, until it had received a fair trial; and advising the introduction of Webster's Quarto Dictionary into every district and high school. A committee was appointed to examine the school laws and report such alterations and additions as might be deemed desirable.

Second Annual Meeting.—At Waterbury, August 27th, 1851. Addresses were delivered by the President, upon the "*Influence of the Association in advancing the interests of Education in the State;*" by Rev. J. E. King, on the "*Liberal Education of Females;*" by Z. K. Pangborn, on "*Indolence of Thought, the Teacher's greatest Enemy;*" by Prof. C. Pease, on "*Classical Studies;*" by Rev. A. Brainard, on "*Habits of Obedience;*" and by L. O. Stevens, on "*Reform in our Academies.*" Resolutions were passed upon the influence of the thoroughly qualified Teacher and the duty of united effort; in favor of the publication of an educational journal; in respect to the usefulness of libraries in high schools and academies, as compared with that of philosophical apparatus; advising an increase in the salary of the State Superintendent; and urging a more careful examination of teachers by the town Superintendents. J. T. Fairbanks was authorized to memorialize the General Assembly against injurious legislation upon the subject of common schools, and in view of the great defects of the school-houses through the State, in location and structure, and of the slowness on the part of the public to become convinced of the fact, a committee was appointed to report at the next meeting upon the proper location and size of school grounds, and upon a plan, with specifications and estimates, for a district school-house suitable to the general wants of the State; discussed by Messrs. Rev. A. G. Pease, Rev. A. Brainard, Rev. Dr. Smith, C. G. Burnham, W. A. Burnham, Z. K.

Pangborn, J. O. Miller, Rev. S. R. Hall, and others. The officers of the previous year were, with few exceptions, reëlected. J. S. Spaulding was elected Cor. Secretary, and J. E. King, J. D. Wickham, and J. O. Miller, Ex. Committee.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At St. Johnsbury, Aug. 10th, 1852. Addresses were delivered by L. O. Stevens, on the "*Vermont School System;*" by H. S. Noyes, on the "*Necessity of Legislative Action to an Efficient Educational System;*" by Rev. E. Cutler, on the "*True Idea of a Practical Education;*" by Prof. J. B. Bittenger, on "*Accomplishments;*" and by Pres. E. Bourne, on a "*Comparison of the Collegiate Education of the Old and New World.*" The committee upon the establishment of a State Journal, reported the proposed publication of the "*Teacher's Voice,*" by Z. K. Pangborn, upon his own responsibility. This journal was published for a year, or more. Rev. J. D. Wickham, D. M. Camp, J. P. Fairbanks, and W. A. Burnham were appointed a committee in relation to the establishment and endowment of a State Normal School, $5,000 having already been offered conditional upon the raising of the additional amount necessary for carrying out the plan. Resolutions were passed in relation to the evil of a too frequent change of textbooks; against the encouragement of ignorant, itinerant lecturers; in favor of the use of single desks in schools; and soliciting the attendance of common school teachers at the meetings of the Association. These resolutions were discussed by Messrs. Orcutt, Wickham, Camp, J. P. Fairbanks, Pangborn, Sam. H. Taylor, and others. The previous officers were reëlected.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Rutland, August 23d, 1853. Addresses by Rev. W. Smith; by Rev. H. Orcutt, on "*Sources of Educational Influence;*" by Rev. A. B. Lambert, on "*Deaf-Mutes and their Education;*" by W. A. Burnham, on "*School Government;*" by C. H. Hayden, on "*Books;*" and by Gen. Hopkins, on the "*Common School System.*" Resolutions were adopted, after discussion, by Messrs. E. L. Ormsby, N. Bishop, Pangborn, Smith, Hicks, Aiken, and others, requesting information from the presidents of colleges, academies, and high schools, respecting their several institutions; declaring the necessity of a thorough classification of students in academies, and a regular course of studies; and recommending the establishment of graded union schools. W. Smith, D. D., B. Labaree, D. D., J. A. Hicks, D. D., Horace Eaton, D. M. Camp, Rev. N. Bishop, and Z. K. Pangborn were appointed a committee to memorialize the Legislature "for such action in aid of the cause of education as a sound, wise, and liberal policy requires."

Rev. Dr. Smith was reëlected President; Z. K. Pangborn, J. Graham, and J. D. Kingsbury, Secretaries; H. Orcutt, E. C. Tracy, and J. K. Colby, Ex. Committee.

FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Windsor, August 22d, 1854. Addresses by Bishop J. H. Hopkins, on the "*Agencies required for a full Result of Education;*" by R. W. Clarke, on the "*Reciprocal Duties of the Citizen and the State;*" by Rev. R. S. Howard, on "*Common Schools—their Importance and Means of Improvement;*" by Cornelius Walker, on the "*Best Method of Teaching Reading;*" and by Prof. N. G. Clark, on the "*Education now needed in Vermont.*" Essays were also read by J. Graham, on the "*Necessity of a State Board of Education;*" by Hon. D. M. Camp, on "*Phonology;*" by J. K. Colby, on "*Means of Keeping Scholars Employed;*" by J. S. Spaulding, on the "*Best Method of Teaching Arithmetic;*" and by Rev. C. B. Hurlbert, on "*School Government.*" The prominent subject before the Association for discussion and action was that of a *State Board of Education.* Messrs. D. M. Camp, Prof. J. D. Wickham, Prof. H. Orcutt, Chief Justice Redfield, Rev. E. Ballou, and Rev. E. J. Scott were appointed a committee to bring the subject before the Legislature at its next session, to confer with the Committee on Education, and to aid with suggestions as to the details of a suitable act, and to procure petitions to the Legislature in behalf of this object. A resolution was also passed in favor of an attempt to establish County Associations.

Hon. D. M. Camp was elected President; J. S. Spaulding, Cor. Secretary; and Z. K. Pangborn, John Graham, and C. B. Hurlbert, Ex. Committee.

SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At St. Albans, August 21st, 1855. Lectures and Essays by Prof. E. D. Sanborn, on "*Reading;*" by R. C. Benton, Jr., on "*School Government;*" by G. E. Hood, on "*Teaching, we give, and giving, we retain;*" by Prof. G. N. Boardman, on "*Elocution, as a Means of Mental Culture;*" and by Prof. L. S. Rust, on the "*Importance of Vocal Music in Common Schools.*" Discussions following the lectures were conducted by Messrs. G. E. Hood, C. B. Hurlbert, E. B. Smith, N. Bishop, R. C. Benton, Jr., Prof. N. G. Clark, &c. The Committee on a Board of Education reported the subject of school improvement to be thoroughly before the people, and the probability of the adoption of a more satisfactory school system by the succeeding Legislature. Rev. E. B. Smith, D. D., was elected President; Prof. N. G. Clark, Cor. Secretary; J. K. Colby, Rev. J. Steele, and G. E. Hood, Ex. Committee.

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Barre, August 19th, 1856. Lectures were delivered by H. B. Wood, on the "*Vermont School Fund*," as consisting in the native talent and energy of her children, the influence of grand and beautiful scenery, and the formation and cultivation of character; by Mr. Grant, of Philadelphia, on the "*Pennsylvania Schools and School System;*" and by Rev. H. P. Cushing, on the "*Teacher's Mission.*" Discussions were held upon Union and Graded Schools; the necessity of an amended School Law; the State Policy in relation to Schools and School-books; and School Government—participated in by Messrs. J. H. Graham, C. W. Cushing, M. Burbank, J. Brittan, Jr., Rev. C. C. Parker, O. D. Allis, J. Sargent, Blanchard, Camp, Spaulding, and Ranney. Resolutions were adopted in favor of graded schools, and the introduction of Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes. In view of the facts that since 1852 the Legislature had withdrawn its appropriations from Teachers' Institutes, had refused to appoint a State Superintendent, as required by law, and had resisted all attempts to amend the school laws, it was resolved—

That we will use our utmost exertions to secure the appointment of a State Superintendent of Common Schools, according to the provisions of our statutes.

That our State Legislature has pursued a fatal policy in neglecting the interests of our public schools, and that the most of the money now expended is worse than wasted.

Rev. Calvin Pease, D. D., was elected President; Rev. O. D. Allis, Cor. Secretary; and J. H. Graham, J. S. Spaulding, and J. S. Lee, Ex. Committee.

In November, 1856, an act was passed by the Legislature establishing a Board of Education, with a secretary, upon whom devolved the general duties of school supervision. Teachers' Institutes were required to be held at least once a year in each county, towards the expenses of which a grant of thirty dollars annually was made, and the time spent by the teachers in attendance was to be embraced in their terms of service. In January, 1857, Hon. J. S. Adams entered upon his duties as Secretary of the Board, and a new era commenced in the history of the schools of Vermont.

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Northfield, August 18th, 1857. Lectures by Dr. Calvin Pease, on the "*Characteristics of a Good Teacher;*" by Prof. A. Cumings, on the "*Adaptation of our Institutions to the Wants of the People;*" by Rev. C. W. Cushing, on the "*Importance of the Cultivation of the Social Principle;*" by E. Bourne, L L. D., on the "*Clergy of the Middle Ages;*" by Prof. M. H. Buckham, on "*The So-called School Reforms;*" by Ex-Gov. Slade, on "*Moral Education;*" and by J. S. Adams, on the "*Gen-*

eral Interests of Education in the State." Essays were read by E. Conant, on "*Academies and Public Schools;*" and by E. C. Johnson, on "*Graded Schools.*" Resolutions were adopted recommending the formation of local Teachers Associations; the selection of a series of text-books through the Board of Education, for general use throughout the State; uniformity of requirements in the examination of teachers, to be agreed upon by the town Superintendents in their County Conventions; the graded school system; the moral culture of pupils and the daily reading of the Bible in schools; and the general introduction of Vocal Music into schools. The establishment of an educational journal was made the subject of a report by J. K. Colby, and referred to a Committee, consisting of Prof. N. G. Clark, J. K. Colby, and E. C. Johnson, for their farther action, who should also provide suitable educational matter and secure its publication in the Vermont papers. An attempt was also made to secure statistical information respecting the colleges and higher schools of the State. Rev. Calvin Pease was reëlected President; Rev. S. L. Elliott, Secretary; Rev. A. Hyde, J. S. Spaulding, A. D. Rowe, Rev. C. W. Cushing, and Prof. A. Jackman, Ex. Committee. The attendance at this meeting was unusually full.

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Bellows Falls, August 16th, 1858. Lectures and essays were delivered by Pres. Pease, on the "*Qualifications and Responsibilities of our Common School Teachers;*" by Rev. J. S. Lee, on the "*Dignity of the Teacher's Profession;*" by R. L. Perkins, on "*Reading as a Means of Mental Culture;*" by J. S. Spaulding, on the "*Relations of Common to Higher Schools;*" by J. L. Stow, on "*Recitation;*" by Henry Clark, on "*Mental Development;*" by Hon. W. Slade, on "*Thoroughness in Intellectual Education;*" by A. D. Rowe, on the "*Teacher out of the School-room;*" by Rev. E. W. Hooker, on the "*Importance of Music in Common Schools;*" and by Prof. G. N. Boardman, on the "*True Educational Policy for Vermont.*" The subject of a school journal was again brought prominently before the Association. Propositions had been received both from Massachusetts and New Hampshire, to unite in sustaining the journals of those States, which propositions were declined. The committee of the previous year reported the publication of various articles in twenty-five different papers of the State, and recommended the continuation of the same course. The committee was continued and a second committee, consisting of A. E. Leavenworth, A. D. Roe, and J. S. Spaulding, was appointed to take measures to commence, if practicable, the publication of a School Journal. The "Vermont School Journal and Family Vis-

itor" was accordingly commenced in the April following, and has been continued till the present.

Resolutions were adopted recommending that academies insist upon definite acquirements as a condition of admission, to be determined by examination. Rev. Dr. Pease was reëlected to the office of President; Rev. J. H. Worcester, Prof. G. W. Boardman, Rev. A. Webster, Ex. Committee.

Tenth Annual Meeting.—At Burlington, August 16th, 1859. Lectures by Rev. W. Child, D. D., upon "*The Education that should be aimed at, and its attainment;* by Rev. F. T. Russell, on "*Elocution;*" by Prof. H. Orcutt, on the "*Condition of Schools in New York;*" by J. S. Adams, on the "*Educational Interests of Vermont;*" and by Hon. D. Needham, on "*Teaching as a Profession.*" An essay was read by L. H. Austin, on the "*Value of Correct Reading in Mental Culture,*" which gave rise to an interesting discussion. There were also discussions upon the best methods of teaching English Grammar, and upon the resolution of the previous year in regard to the requirements for admission to the academies. The Committee on the "School Journal" reported that its publication had been commenced with favorable prospects. Resolutions were passed, among others, in honor of the memory of Hon. William Slade and Horace Mann. The President was reëlected, and Messrs. J. K. Colby, Rev. R. M. Manly, and Thompson, of Peacham, were elected Ex. Committee. This session was much the largest and in every way the most interesting and successful that had yet been held—some four or five hundred teachers were present.

Eleventh Annual Meeting.—At St. Johnsbury, August 14th, 1860. Addresses by Prof. S. W. Boardman, on the "*Dignity and Importance of the Teacher's Work;*" by Rev. J. E. Rankin, on the "*Claims of the Bible to a Place in our Schools;*" by J. S. Adams, on the "*Condition of the Common Schools of the State;*" by Hon. J. S. Morrill, on the "*Culture of Man, and some of its Means;*" and by Prof. N. G. Clark. Discussions were held upon the facilities needed and practicable for improving the qualifications of teachers in the State; and upon the standard of qualifications to be required in those licensed to teach common schools. Resolutions were adopted that male and female teachers of equal qualifications and performing equal services should receive equal compensation; that the Teacher's Institutes which had been held through the State had proved of great beneficial value to teachers and the community, and should be attended by all teachers; that the personal influence likely to be exerted by the teacher ought to be regarded in his selection no less

than ability to teach; expressing confidence in the school system, and appreciation of the labors of the Secretary of the Board, &c. The following officers were elected:—J. K. Colby, *Pres.* Rev. P. H. White, *Vice-Pres.* Rev. S. L. Elliott, *Rec. Sec.* Prof. S. W. Boardman, Prof. N. G. Clark, and Prof. C. B. Smith, *Ex. Com.*, and fourteen Corresponding Secretaries.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Middlebury, August 19th, 1861. Lectures by J. Dana, on "*Arithmetic;*" by Prof. N. G. Clark, on "*Moral Culture;*" by Prof. H. M. Buckham, on the "*English Language in School;*" and by H. Orcutt, on the "*Relation of Common Schools to the Prosperity of a Community.*" Discussions were held upon vocal music in schools; how long young children should be detained in school; and the position of English grammar in a school course. A resolution was adopted that greater attention should be given in the public schools to the elementary studies and less to the higher branches. J. K. Colby was elected President; J. Dana, J. D. Wickham, and E. Conant, Ex. Committee.

The American Institute of Instruction held its annual meeting at Brattleboro on the 21st of August, which was unusually attractive and very fully attended.

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Windsor, August 19th, 1862. Addresses by Rev. W. Sewall, on "*Moral Culture in Common Schools;*" by C. O. Thompson, on the "*Logical Method of Teaching Arithmetic;*" by Rev. C. E. Ferrin, on "*Classical Studies in their Relation to Common Schools;*' by J. B. Thompson, L L. D., on "*Methods of Teaching Arithmetic;*" by B. F. Bingham, on "*Reading;*" and by Hon. A. P. Hunton, on the "*Importance of the Federal and State Constitutions as a Study in Common Schools.*" Discussions followed the lectures upon Arithmetic and Moral Culture, also upon the study of the Constitution and upon the subject-matter and methods of Geography. Resolutions were adopted recommending the "School Journal" to wider favor; that the study of the Constitution should be introduced into schools, and more specific attention given to the geography and history of the State; that lack of discipline was a radical defect in the schools, and that more care should be taken in keeping the Registers and making the returns required by law. Rev. C. E. Ferrin was elected President; Prof. N. G. Clark, Vice-President; Rev. William Sewall, B. F. Bingham, and D. G. Moore, Ex. Committee.

FOURTEETH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Rutland, January 18th, 1863. Addresses were delivered by Rev. Norman Seaver, on the "*Relation*

of Teachers to our Country;" by Rev. R. S. Howard, on the "*Two Ways;*" by Prof. M. H. Buckham, on the "*Supplementary Work of the Teacher;*" by Charles Northend, on the "*History of the Progress of Education in America;*" by S. B. Colby, on the "*True Culture for Americans;*" by Hiram Orcutt, on "*School Discipline;*" by J. N. Camp, on "*Music in Schools;*" by Gen. J. W. Phelps, on "*Meteorology;*" and by J. S. Adams, on the "*Duties of Parents in connection with Common Schools.*" Discussions were had upon the proper mode of teaching Grammar; upon the uses of text-books, and upon reading. Rev. Pliny H. White was elected President; B. F. Winslow, Vice-President; and J. S. Spaulding, Eli Ballou, and C. C. Parker, Ex. Committee. This meeting was reported as by far the most successful of the meetings of the Association, and one of the largest and most interesting ever held in the State.

FIFTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Montpelier, January 18th, 1864. Lectures by E. Conant, upon "*Recitation;*" by J. J. Lewis, on the "*Patriotism of Education;*" by Rev. D. Labaree, D. D., on the "*Study of the Ancient Classics;*" by D. D. Gorham, on the "*Method of acquiring a Knowledge of the English Language;*" and by Secretary J. S. Adams. Interesting discussions were held upon the advantages arising from a well endowed State Normal School, (subject proposed at the previous meeting;) the proper methods of teaching arithmetic; text-books and their proper use; and the kind of instruction most conducive to patriotism. Resolutions were passed recommending the "School Journal" and approving of its management; and expressing the desire that the hospitalities of the different towns where the Association might meet, should be solicited only for *members* who shall notify the Executive Committee of their purpose to be in attendance. Rev. P. H. White was reëlected President; Rev. C. C. Parker, Vice-President; J. S. Spaulding, J. S. D. Taylor, and M. H. Buckham, Ex. Committee.

The "School Journal" says:—This meeting afforded reasons for great encouragement to the friends of education in Vermont. The number in attendance, the character of the audience assembled, and the interest manifested, all show that great progress has been made in the last fifteen years. At the beginning of this period, our Association had no existence. And for several years, the attendance was so small that the railroads refused to reduce our fare and the villages where the meetings had been held hardly knew the fact. Now, so great has been the change that the question is seriously agitated, whether it is not a serious imposition to ask free entertainment for all our members. And who came to attend these meetings? Presidents and professors from our colleges, principals from our seminaries, academies, and high schools, and teachers from every department of instruction, public and private. Add to these the representatives of the learned professions, (especially the clergymen, who have always occupied a prominent position among the friends of education,) and citizens from every department of life, and we have an assem-

bly as large, intelligent, and influential as can be gathered in the State *for any other purpose.*"

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At St. Albans, January 11th, 1865. Lectures by Rev. J. W. Hough, on "*Physical Culture;*" by Prof. B. Kellogg, on a "*Comparison of English and American Literature;*" by D. G. Moore, on "*Object Teaching;*" by Rev. G. Newman, D. D., on the "*Good School;*" by Hon. J. S. Adams, on the "*Condition and Progress of Education in Vermont;*" and by Rev. J. D. Wickham, on the "*Method of Teaching Latin.*" Discussions were held upon school discipline; the most desirable amount and division of school hours; teachers' employment of time for self-improvement; and English composition. Resolutions were adopted upon the importance of physical culture and the expediency and desirableness of its introduction into all public schools; and approving the action of the previous Legislature, requiring the entire expense of the public schools to be borne on the Grand List—an object which had been sought by the friends of education for nearly twenty years. The following officers were elected:—Rev. J. Newman, D. D., *Pres.* Gen. J. W. Phelps, *Vice-Pres.* D. G. Moore, *Sec.* E. Conant, *Treas.* Prof. M. H. Buckham, S. E. Quimby, and B. F. Bingham, *Ex. Com.*, and fourteen Corresponding Secretaries.

PRESIDENTS OF THE VERMONT STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

HIRAM ORCUTT.

HIRAM ORCUTT, one of the originators of the Vermont Teachers' Association and a prominent schoolman of that State, was born at Acworth, N. H., February 3d, 1815. Though all the influences that surrounded him, direct and indirect, were opposed to it, and though for the first eighteen years of his life he enjoyed no advantages for study except such as were afforded by a poor district-school for three months of the year, while his opportunities for reading were confined to the old "American Reader," the Bible, and an inferior weekly newspaper, yet he early determined upon a course of liberal studies. He resorted to teaching to defray his expenses, and assumed the charge of his first school after having attended Chester (Vt.) Academy for one term. He afterwards attended Meriden (N. H.) Academy, and Phillips Academy at Andover, Mass., for two years, when he entered Dartmouth College in 1838, graduating in 1842. In the meantime he had taught in Rockingham, Vt., at Wellfleet on Cape Cod for five winters in succession, and afterwards at Barre, Vt., and Andover, Mass., making in all nine terms in district-schools, for a compensation varying from eleven to thirty dollars a-month, and board. He also taught "high schools" for three terms while in college. There was thus developed a love for the business and an estimate of its importance which determined his choice of a profession.

For nearly a year after graduation Mr. Orcutt taught at Hebron, N. H., as principal of the Hebron Academy. For the twelve years following he had charge of the Thetford (Vt.) Academy, and in 1855 was elected principal of a Ladies' Seminary which had been newly established at North Granville, N. Y., and which soon attained to a most flourishing condition. In 1860 he opened the Glenwood Ladies' Seminary at West Brattleboro, Vt., as a private enterprise, taking with him his full board of experienced teachers, who had all been educated and trained under his own care. The school was filled to its utmost capacity during the first week and has continued to have an average attendance of 120 pupils, from many different States. In August, 1864, he was elected principal of the Tilden Female Seminary, at West Lebanon, N. H., while still retaining his position at Glenwood, and now has under his charge both institutions with all their financial and educational interests. About 220 young ladies have graduated from these Seminaries during the last ten years, among whom many who would otherwise have been unable to acquire an education, have been aided and encouraged by Mr. Orcutt through a full course of study, have been secured situations as teachers, and have taken important positions in life.

Mr. Orcutt, an approved and successful teacher, has thus received no professional training except in the school-room and in connection with practical teaching. His best schoolmaster has been *poverty*, and to the *necessities* of early life





and the resultant habits of industry, economy, and perseverance, is due much of the success that has attended him. He has, moreover, always been active in sustaining Teachers' Institutes and educational conventions and associations. He was one of the few who organized the State Teachers' Association and has delivered several lectures at its annual meetings. He has for two years been superintendent of the public schools of Brattleboro, Vt., and has been, since 1861, editor and proprietor of the "*Vermont School Journal.*" His "*Hints to Teachers, Parents, and Pupils; or Gleanings from School-life Experience,*" has passed through several editions. In connection with Mr. T. Rickard he has also published a "*Class-Book of Prose and Poetry,*" of the several editions of which some 75,000 copies have been sold.

WORTHINGTON SMITH, D. D.

Rev. Worthington Smith, D. D., the first President of the Vermont State Teachers' Association, was born in Hadley, Mass., October 11, 1795—was fitted for college at the Hadley Grammar School and with his brother at Geneva, New York—graduated at Williams College in 1816—studied theology at the Andover Seminary—licensed to preach June, 1819, and was ordained pastor of a Congregational church at St. Albans, Vt., June 4, 1823, where he remained twenty-seven years.

Dr. Smith was for one year (1820) principal of the Hopkins' Grammar School in Hadley, and from 1849 to his death in 1856 President of the University of Vermont, in which position he gave instruction in Practical Economy, Jurisprudence and Government, Moral Science and Evidences of Religion. As a teacher he was laborious and thorough in his own preparation for the class-room, and his method of teaching combined oral exposition and individual questioning on the text-book.

He took an active interest in local and State educational movements. He was President of the Trustees of Franklin County Grammar School—in 1846 County Superintendent of Common schools, and for several years President of the State Teachers' Association, and a frequent participant in the exercises, giving great importance to the conservative features in systems and the moral element in instruction, and was always listened to with great attention.

CALVIN PEASE, D. D.

Calvin Pease, D. D., was born in Canaan, Conn., August 12, 1813. His father, Salmon Pease, removed to Charlotte, Vermont, in November, 1826. Here he was occupied on his father's farm until the spring of 1832, when he entered Hinesburg Academy to fit for college, having up to that time attended only the common school of the district, and improved the advantages of reading thoroughly the few good books which the scanty home library afforded. In September, 1833, he entered the University of Vermont, and graduated in 1838, having been absent one year in teaching, but maintaining at all times in his class the front rank for thoroughness and extent of scholarship. He commenced teaching in a district-school when he was sixteen years of age, and continued to teach in the same class of schools frequently, during the winter terms, until he became principal in the Academy at Montpelier, Vt. In 1842 he was elected to the professorship of the Greek and Latin Languages in his Alma Mater. In this position he continued until Dec., 1855, when he was chosen to succeed Dr. Worthington Smith as President of the institution. He was inaugurated at

Commencement in 1856, and received a few weeks after the degree of Doctor of Divinity from Middlebury College. The onerous duties of this office he discharged faithfully until Nov., 1861, when in consideration of his own health and of a larger income, he accepted a call to the pastorate of the First Presbyterian Church of Rochester, New York. After two years of a most successful ministry he died at Burlington, Vt., when on a visit to his brother-in-law, September 17, 1863.

In October, 1856, the Legislature of Vermont created a Board of Education for the State supervision of the system of common schools. Of this Board Dr. Pease was made a member and for four years gave direction and efficiency to its measures. Its Secretary, J. S. Adams, in a communication published in the elegant and appropriate IN MEMORIAM volume printed by his brother, Thomas H. Pease, New Haven, thus speaks of his connection with the Board:—"When I first met with the Board," [to which he had been appointed Secretary, and accepted, mainly from the urgency of Dr. Pease,] "the members seemed to be at a loss how to begin the work of gathering up the broken threads, and bringing into effective shape the school system of the State, and in fact devolved upon him the whole direction of practical matters. We together planned every thing for the first year or two; and the confidence of the Board in his capacity and judgment was implicit. The only difference of opinion arose from his habit of taking a larger view of all educational matters than any other member, and from his entire want of that sort of fear that deters men from doing what they admit to be right from a desire to consult the dictates of expediency. * * The State of Vermont owes Calvin Pease a heavy debt of gratitude for the wisdom and boldness, mingled with tact and shrewdness, with which he threw himself, at exactly the right time, into the field of educational labor in the cause of common schools." In the fall of 1856, he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association, and took an active part in its proceedings from year to year—giving to the teachers of common schools the heartiest sympathy and effective coöperation. Dr. Pease's published writings of an educational character are—"*Import and Value of Popular Lecturing of the Day*," in 1842; "*Classical Studies*," contributed to the Bibliotheca Sacra, July, 1852; the "*Idea of the New England College and its Power of Culture*," 1856; Address to the Graduating Class of the Medical Department in 1856, and the Baccalaureate Sermons in 1856–7–8–9 and 1860. For a full estimate of Dr. Pease's Life, Character, and Services, see the Discourse of Dr. Shedd, and the Remarks of Prof. Torrey, in the memorial volume, printed by his brother, Thomas H. Pease, New Haven, 1865.

IV. MICHIGAN STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PRELIMINARY HISTORY.

THE first Educational Convention in the State of Michigan was gathered at Detroit, January 3d, 1838, mainly through the influence of Hon. John D. Pierce, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. It continued in session three days, during which several lectures were delivered and discussions held upon general educational topics. A Society was at the same time organized under the name of the *Michigan Literary Institute*, whose first annual meeting was appointed to be held at Detroit, July 4th, of the same year, but nothing more is heard of it. In 1839 "County Common School Associations" were formed in Calhoun, Branch, St. Joseph, and other counties, which however effected little.

Under the administration of Hon. Ira Mayhew, Superintendent, numerous County Teachers' Associations and Educational Societies were formed in 1845 and 1846, of which that of Lenawee county was the earliest. The first Teachers' Institute was held by the Jackson County Teachers' Association in October, 1846. Township and even District Educational Societies, auxiliary to the County Societies, were at the same time formed, and finally at a Convention of delegates from the County Societies, held at Ann Arbor, June 23d, 1847, the *Michigan State Educational Society* was organized as auxiliary to the "North-Western Educational Society," which had been previously formed at Chicago in October, 1846, and was intended to unite and advance the common educational interests of all the Western States, but was sustained only two or three years. The State Convention was addressed by Gen. Cass, Gov. Felch, Hon. Ira Mayhew, E. C. Seaman, and others, and after the adoption of a Constitution, the following officers were elected:—Dr. J. G. Cornell, *President;* Ira Mayhew and M. M. Baldwin, *Secretaries;* Rev. G. L. Foster and Rev. J. A. B. Stone, *Executive Committee.* Two annual meetings were afterwards held, at Jackson, in January, 1848, and at Lansing, in 1849. In the spring of 1849, Teachers' Institutes were held by Mr. Mayhew, as-

sisted by a board of instructors, at Jonesville, Ann Arbor, and Pontiac.

The State Normal School was established by act of the Legislature of 1849, was located at Ypsilanti in 1850, and the school building was formally dedicated Oct. 5th, 1852. Mr. A. S. Welch was appointed its Principal. The opening of the institution for the reception of pupils was preceded by the holding of a Teachers' Institute, immediately after the dedication, which was attended by two hundred and fifty teachers of the State. Besides the usual exercises in instruction, evening lectures were delivered by Prof. Charles Davies, on the "*Responsibility of Teachers;*" by A. S. Welch, on "*Physical Science;*" by Rev. H. N. Strong, on "*Female Education;*" by D. B. Duffield, on the "*Teacher's Mission;*" by E. C. Walker, on "*Natural Science;*" by George Davis, on "*Music;*" by F. W. Shearman, on the "*Relation of the Normal School to Teachers;*" and by Hon. C. D. Swan, on the "*Teacher's Duties.*"

ORGANIZATION AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

At the suggestion and mainly through the efforts of Mr. Welch, the STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was organized during the session of the Institute at Ypsilanti, on the 12th of October, 1852, by the election of the following officers:—A. S. Welch, *Pres.* H. B. Thayer and Miss A. C. Rogers, *Vice-Pres.* John Horner and J. M. B. Sill, *Sec.* Henry Cheever, *Treas.* Committees were appointed to draft a constitution to be reported at the next meeting, to procure lecturers and to report upon designated subjects of educational interest.

SECOND ANNUAL MEETING.—At Ypsilanti, March 29th, 1853. This meeting was held in connection with the State Institute, a part of each day and evening being given to it. A constitution was adopted and the following officers elected:—A. S. Welch, *Pres.* J. Estabrook, M. S. Hawley, J. G. Sutherland, Mr. Ballard, T. H. Eaton, J. A. B. Stone, B. G. Stout, and J. F. Nichols, *Vice-Pres.* J. Horner and J. B. Sill, *Sec.* J. W. Stark, *Treas.* W. P. Clark, O. Jackson, Miss A. C. Rogers, and Miss S. Hunt, *Ex. Com.* Addresses were delivered by Hon. J. E. Crary, A. S. Welch, Rev. F. O. Marsh, Rev. F. T. Gardiner, Rev. W. Curtis, D. B. Green, Rev. M. S. Hawley, and U. T. Howe. Reports were made by Prof. Welch, on "*Teaching English Grammar;*" by J. E. Bateman, on "*Reading and Spelling;*" by Miss J. A. Bacon, on "*Elementary Reading;*" and by Miss Loomis, on the "*Wages of Female Teachers.*" Discussions were also held on methods of teaching

reading and elocution, spelling, and English grammar, and on school government, and the wages of teachers.

A Semi-Annual Meeting was held at Kalamazoo, Sept. 29th, 1853—continuing in session five days in connection with the Institute. Addresses were delivered by Dr. L. M. Cutcheon, Prof. E. O. Haven, Prof. A. S. Welch, J. A. B. Stone, Prof. Foster, and U. T. Howe. The main feature of the session was the establishment of the "Michigan Journal of Education" as the organ of the Association, under the editorship of Prof. Haven, Prof. Welch, and J. M. Gregory.

THIRD ANNUAL MEETING.—At Detroit, April 18th, 19th, and 20th, 1854. J. M. Gregory was elected President. An address was delivered by Hon. Horace Mann, on "*Teachers' Motives;*" and reports were presented by A. L. Bingham, on "*Penmanship;*" by J. F. Cary, on "*Professional Spirit among Teachers;*" by E. O. Havens, on "*The Study of Languages;*" by Prof. Estabrook, on the "*Studies to be pursued in Common Schools;*" by Prof. Bartlett, on "*School Discipline;*" by L. J. Marcy, on "*Vocal Music;*" by C. A. Leach, on "*Religious Education in Schools;*" by J. F. Cary, on the "*Journal of Education;*" by Miss A. C. Rogers, on "*Teachers and Teaching;*" and by Prof. Fisk, on "*Teaching as a Profession.*" These reports were followed by discussions, which were earnest and practical. The attendance was large, including many prominent teachers who had never before been present and who became henceforth active members.

The Semi-Annual Meeting was held at Marshall, August 15th, 1854. Lectures by Dr. J. A. B. Stone, on "*The Art of becoming Great;*" and by Levi Bishop, on "*The Four Cardinal Virtues of Teachers.*" A warm and protracted discussion was held on the subject of Religious Instruction in Common Schools, Prof. Haven and Prof. Welch having presented counter reports. Discussions were also held upon the subjects of Reading and Rhetoric, and Moral Philosophy in schools.

During this year a number of auxiliary associations were organized through the exertions of the President.

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Ann Arbor, April 22d to 24th, 1855. Lectures by Prof. D. Putnam; and by J. M. Gregory, on "*The Relation of the Teacher to the Age.*" Reports were made upon the study of the English classics; Union Schools; school supervision; and the study of the classics preparatory to college. Discussions followed the reports and a debate of more than usual interest was excited by a paper, presented by Prof. Putnam, upon the co-

education of the sexes. The decision was strongly in favor of mixed schools. Some steps were also taken towards the formation of a Natural History Society under the Association, in response to an able report by Prof. Winchell upon the pursuit of the natural sciences. Prof. Winchell was appointed Curator of the proposed cabinet. On election of officers Prof. J. Estabrook was chosen President, and Rev. A. B. Dunlap and Prof. A. Winchell, Secretaries. The meeting was largely attended.

The Semi-Annual Meeting was held at Jackson, Dec. 26th, 1855. The attendance was unusually small, owing to the severity of the weather. Reports were made by Prof. Welch on the study of English classics in schools, and by J. M. Gregory, advocating a system of County Superintendents, in which, after an able discussion, the members generally concurred. The subject was recommitted.

Fifth Annual Meeting.—At Ypsilanti, August 18th to 20th, 1856. Addresses by Prof. Travis, of Delaware, and by Prof. J. R. Boise, on "*Athenian and American Sophists.*" Reports on the Cultivation of the Sensibilities, by Prof. Young, and on the Study of Natural History, by Prof. Winchell, were followed by interesting discussions. J. M. Gregory also presented an elaborate report in favor of a County Superintendency, and the study of the English classics was again introduced by Prof. Welch. An oral report by Prof. Haven on the subject of primary teaching gave rise to an earnest debate. Rev. J. A. B. Stone, D. D., was elected President, and G. K. Newcombe and B. B. Northrop, Secretaries.

The Semi-Annual Meeting was held at Battle Creek, Dec. 24th, 1856. Lectures from Prof. D. P. Mayhew, on "*Arctic Discoveries,*" and an essay by Mrs. L. H. Stone, on the "*Study of English Literature.*" Much of the time was spent in the discussion of subjects proposed to be submitted for the action of the Legislature at its next session. Among these was a bill providing for the erection of the office of County Superintendent of Schools, a resolution urging the appropriation of a portion of the Swamp Land Fund to the purposes of higher education, and the appointment of a committee to secure the patronage of the Legislature to the "School Journal." The necessary measures were also completed, in accordance with the statutes of the State, for securing to the Association the rights of incorporation.

Sixth Annual Meeting.—At Adrian, August 18th to 20th, 1857. Addresses were delivered by President Mayhew, of Jackson, on "*Education;*" and by Dr. J. A. B. Stone. Reports were presented by the Executive Committee, on the condition and affairs of

the Association; by Prof. E. J. Boyd, on "*The Influence of a Cultivated Taste on Female Character*;" by Prof. F. Hubbard, on "*Township School-Districts*;" by E. W. Cheesebro, on "*Geography*;" by J. M. Gregory, on "*Primary Education*;" by Ira Mayhew, on "*Moral Education*;" and by Prof. W. Travis, on "*Teaching the Eye*." A discussion was also held upon the subject of school libraries. Franklin Hubbard, of Adrian, was elected President; U. T. Lawton and J. F. Cary, Secretaries. Arrangements were made for educational mass meetings, of which two were held during the autumn, at Tecumseh and Howell.

The Semi-Annual Meeting was held at Ann Arbor, December 29th and 30th, 1857. Addresses were delivered by Rev. L. D. Chapin and by Prof. A. Winchell. Discussions followed the presentation of papers by Prof. E. L. Ripley, on "*School Libraries*;" by Miss M. H. Cutcheon, on "*The Educator*;" by Prof. O. Hosford, on "*The Moral Aims of Education*;" and by Prof. D. Putnam, on "*The Composition of the English Language*." The introduction of Natural History into the college course of studies was made the subject of a series of resolutions by Prof. Winchell, and reports were received from a number of County Associations. One of the most prominent features of the session was a discussion of the affairs of the "School Journal."

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Miles, August 17th and 18th, 1858. Addresses by Rev. Dr. Dempster and F. Hubbard. The report of the Executive Committee spoke encouragingly of the educational progress of the State, and its suggestions in reference to the State Historical Society, and to the practicability of a greater uniformity of text-books, received especial attention from the Association. The subject of "*Free Schools*," having been presented in a paper read by F. W. Munson, was warmly discussed, and a resolution was finally adopted favoring the abolition of the "rate bill" system in common schools. An interesting essay was read by Mrs. L. H. Stone, on "*The Relation of the Sexes in Education*." Prof. A. Winchell was elected President; J. T. Reade and J. F. Carey, Secretaries. Fourteen County Associations were reported as having been already organized, with numerous auxiliary township societies.

The Semi-Annual Meeting was held at Jackson, December 27th to 29th, 1858. Very much of the time was given to a discussion upon the subject of text-books, which was finally referred to a committee. Rev. J. M. Gregory delivered a lecture on "*Education, the Work of a Lifetime*," and papers were read by L. E. Holden, on "*Oriental Education*;" by U. W. Lawton, on a "*Course of Study*

for Union Schools;" and by Miss Swartwout, on "*The World Learned, but Uneducated;*" most of which were made the subject of debate. District instead of Township Libraries were recommended.

EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Pontiac, Aug. 16th to 18th, 1859. Addresses by Prof. H. S. Frieze, on "*Practicalism;*" Rev. Dr. E. O. Haven, of Boston, on "*The Position and Duties of the American Teacher;*" and by Prof. A. Winchell, on "*What makes a Successful Teacher.*" Essays were read by Prof. J. Richards, on "*The best Preparatory System in the Classics;*" by Prof. D. D. Briggs, on "*The Study of Latin and Greek;*" and by Prof. L. R. Fisk, on "*Instruction in the Philosophy of Things.*" The points presented in the papers were discussed by Messrs. Gregory, Boyd, Fay, Poor, Richards, Brooks, Holden, Carey, Haven, Baker, Kenyon, Fisk, Vincent, Briggs, Ripley, Mahon, Munson, Stebbins, Van Valkenburgh, Botsford, Hogarth, and others. Most interesting discussions were carried on by many of the same speakers on the two subjects proposed by the Executive Board, viz.: "*The Library System of the State,*" and "*The Propriety of Moral and Religious Instruction in Schools.*"

The principal business transacted by the Association was, 1. The establishment of four Standing Committees, viz.: On Reforms in the School Laws, on the Merits of New Text-books, on Courses of Study, and on the Journal of Education; to report annually. 2. The abolition of the semi-annual session. 3. Provision for the publication of the "Transactions." 4. Transference of the publication of the "Journal" to the Executive Board, with instructions. Prof. E. J. Boyd, of Monroe, was elected President.

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Ypsilanti, August 21st to 24th, 1860. Addresses by Rev. William Hogarth, D. D., on "*The Use of the Affections as a Mental Stimulus;*" by Prof. A. S. Welch, on "*The Natural System of Instruction;*" and by Dr. Thomas Hill, on "*The true Order of Studies.*" Papers were read by J. J. Sadler, on "*County Educational Societies;*" by Silas Betts, on "*The Essential Conditions of Successful Primary Teaching;*" by Prof. J. F. Carey, on "*Courses of Study;*" by Miss A. C. Rogers, on "*The Duties and Responsibilities of Educated Women;*" by E. Danforth, on "*Elementary Instruction;*" and by Edward Olney, on "*An Elementary Mathematical Course.*" Reports were also received from the Executive Board; from Superintendent J. M. Gregory, on "*Reformers in School Laws;*" and from Prof. T. C. Abbott, on "*Text-books.*" Many of these subjects were made ground for discussion and a special debate arose upon the question of "*Prizes in Schools.*"

The following officers were elected:—E. L. Ripley, *Pres.* G. H. Botsford, J. J. Sadler, L. J. Marcy, T. C. Abbott, E. Olney, D. J. Poor, W. Travis, E. Danforth, H. Bross, H. H. Pierce, and J. G. Everett, *Vice-Pres.* J. Richards, *Rec. Sec.* D. Putnam, *Cor. Sec.* D. M. B. Sill, *Treas.* O. Hosford and A. S. Welch, *Ex. Com.*

TENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Kalamazoo, Aug. 21st, 1861. Lectures were delivered by Prof. E. L. Ripley; by President E. B. Fairfield, on "*Radicalism vs. Conservatism;*" by President H. P. Tappan, on "*Duties to the Country;*" by J. M. Gregory, on "*School Government;*" by Prof. W. H. Wells, Prof. A. S. Welch, and Prof. E. L. Ripley. Essays were read by Prof. Boies, on the "*Method of Studying Foreign Languages;*" by Miss Hoppin, on "*Scholar-making;*" by Prof. Olney, on "*Methods of Geography;*" by Prof. Halbert, on "*Physical Education;*" and by Prof. Welch, on "*Geography as an Early Study.*" Reports by Prof. D. M. B. Sill, on *Grammar;*" by Prof. Payne, on "*Reading;*" by Prof. Ripley, on the "*Use of Diagrams;*" by Prof. O. Hosford, on the "*Lecture System;*" and on "*Colleges and Schools.*" The proceedings terminated with a discussion upon the "*Duty of the Teacher to his Country.*" D. M. B. Sill was elected President.

ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—1862. The meetings of the Association during the years of the war were much affected by the disturbances incident to it. Proposed arrangements for the exercises could not always be carried out, the attendance was not always by any means full, the secretaries failed in some cases to preserve full and accurate records, and hence the reports are in a measure imperfect. At this meeting John Goodison read an excellent paper upon "*Geography,*" and Mr. Sadler, upon "*Grammar.*" President Fairfield read "*A Journey to Utopia,*" wherein he described schools as they ought to be. Prof. Welch gave a lecture on "*Object Lessons,*" and a drill upon "*Color.*" Hon. N. Bateman, of Illinois, gave a patriotic lecture, and also a discourse upon "*School Management.*" E. B. Fairfield was elected President.

TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Marshall, 1863. Lectures were delivered by Rev. Mr. Rogers, on the "*Prince of Orange;*" by J. M. Gregory, on "*Grades in Education;*" and by Dr. Stone, of Kalamazoo. A poem was read by J. M. Barker, of Lockport, N. Y.; the remainder of the exercises were principally impromptu discussions. Prof. O. Hosford was elected President, and Merritt Moore, Secretary.

THIRTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING.—At Ann Arbor, 1864. (*No Report.*)

MICHIGAN EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

JOHN D. PIERCE.

JOHN D. PIERCE was born at Chester, New Hampshire, Feb. 18th, 1797, but early losing his father, was brought up in the family of his grandfather in Paxton, Mass. When twenty years of age, he went to work upon a farm for six months for $100, and having soon after united with the church, was prompted at the close of his time to prepare himself for college. He had his wages and $100 that had been bequeathed to him, had previously attended the district-schools but about two months in the year, and had never seen a Latin grammar. On the 15th of December he walked fifteen miles through the rain to Ward, Mass., and there took his first lesson. The next September he entered Brown University, from which he graduated among the foremost of his class. Three months of each college year had been spent in teaching and after graduation he took charge of the academy at Wrentham until the following spring, when he entered the Theological Seminary at Princeton. The next year he returned to Providence, completed his course of study under Prof. Park of the University, and in 1825 was settled as pastor in Sangerfield, N. Y. While here he frequently had students under his care and in 1830 he was for a short time at the head of an academy in Goshen, Conn., but removed the same year to Michigan and settled at Marshall. It was mainly in accordance with his previous suggestions to Gen. Crary, who was Chairman of the Committee on Education in the Convention that framed the State Government in 1835, that the article in the Constitution respecting education was framed and provision made for a Superintendent of Public Instruction. In the following year he was himself appointed to the position, and among his duties was designated the prepation of a plan for primary schools, for a university, and for the disposition of the school and university lands. He visited New England, New York, and New Jersey, for the purpose of gaining information, and the plans proposed by him in his report of the 1st of January, 1837, were for the most part approved and adopted. The main principles urged by him in carrying out the system were, that the property of the State should be holden for the education of every child; that the public schools should be made superior to all others, and that they should be free to all.

In this office Mr. Pierce labored most efficiently for five years, in every part of the State and by all the means at his command. He published and edited the "Journal of Education" for two years while Superintendent, and delivered many addresses on education in conventions and public assemblies. In the Legislature, to which he has twice been elected, and in the Constitutional Convention of 1850, he was active in behalf of education and made frequent speeches and reports, and indeed to no one is Michigan more indebted than to





Ira Mayhew

Mr. Pierce, for her wise and liberal school system, and for the public sentiment that founded and has sustained it.

IRA MAYHEW, A. M.

IRA MAYHEW was born in the year 1814, in Ellisburgh, Jefferson county, N. Y. After having attended the usual district-schools till the age of fourteen, he continued his studies for four years at the Union Academy in the neighboring village of Belleville, under Prof. Charles Avery, paying especial attention to the mathematics, in addition to Greek, Latin, and French. In the fall of 1832 he commenced teaching in his home district, applying himself with all his energies to his new calling, and giving an unusual degree of satisfaction. After teaching district-schools for the greater part of four years, he, in 1837, became principal of the Adams Seminary until appointed Superintendent of Common Schools for Jefferson county in 1841, an office then recently created by the State Legislature. He now devoted himself with remarkable success to the improvement of the schools throughout his county, and his thorough report of their condition was published in the documents of the State Superintendent, occupying nearly forty pages.

In the fall of 1843 Mr. Mayhew removed to Michigan where he was soon appointed principal of the Monroe Branch of the State University. Two years afterwards he was elected by the Legislature Superintendent of Public Instruction for two years, to which office he was reëlected in 1847. He applied himself to the duties of this office with the same zealous diligence and success that characterized him in previous positions. Every part of the State was visited, meetings held, lectures delivered, Teachers' Associations and Institutes formed, and a State Educational Society organized. His reports to the Legislature urged especially upon the State the establishment of Teachers' Institutes and the support of an educational journal. In January, 1849, he delivered by invitation a series of lectures upon education in the State Capitol, which, at the request of the Legislature, were afterwards published by him under the title of "*Means and Ends of Universal Education.*" as a volume of the School Teachers' Library. In 1851 he published a "*Practical System of Book-Keeping,*" which passed through sixty editions in ten years, and of which a thoroughly revised edition was issued in 1860.

In 1853 Mr. Mayhew was elected President of the Albion Seminary and College, and the next year was made again Superintendent of Public Instruction for two years, to which office he was reëlected in 1856 by a large popular majority, for a fourth term. Besides his annual reports, and the performance of the multitudinous other duties of the office, he prepared a volume upon the "*School Funds and School Laws, with Notes and Forms,*" for distribution among the school officers of the State. In 1860 he established the Albion Commercial College, with both a "Theory" and an "Actual Business Department," for the better training of boys in the forms and methods of commercial life. In 1862 he accepted the office of United States Collector of Internal Revenue for the 3d district of Michigan, still giving a portion of his time to the supervision of his favorite enterprise, but has recently (1865) retired from the collectorship and is again devoting his undivided attention to the Commercial College. In 1848 Mr. Mayhew received the honorary degree of Master of Arts from the Wesleyan University at Middletown, Ct.

A. S. WELCH.

A. S. WELCH was born April 12th, 1821, in the town of Chatham, Conn. At the age of eighteen, with such an education as the district-schools afforded, he removed to Michigan and in 1839 opened a private English school at Romeo, devoting his leisure to study preparatory to college. After teaching the next winter in a district-school at Ray, he returned to Romeo and had charge of the mathematical department of a branch of the State University, continuing his studies under the able instruction of Prof. Rufus Nutting. In 1842 he entered the Sophomore class of the University and in the following spring was made principal of the preparatory department, still maintaining his connection with his class. He continued his studies and the principalship for a year after his graduation in 1845 and then commenced the study of law, but finding it unsuited to his tastes he, in 1847, accepted the charge of the Fayette Union School at Jonesville. This was the first graded school of Michigan and had met with much opposition and doubt of its success. But all obstacles were speedily overcome, a thorough system of discipline was established, classes in the higher English branches and in Latin and Greek were organized, and the school attained a high reputation for its discipline and scholarship. But worn down by the labors incident to the position and the previous years of exhausting toil, Mr. Welch was forced to resign in the spring of 1849, and spent the two following years in traveling through the regions west of the Rocky Mountains, during which time he acquired a thorough knowledge of the Spanish language.

Upon his return he resumed his former position in the Fayette school, but in the autumn of 1852 was appointed principal of the newly established State Normal School at Ypsilanti. After the dedication of the building in October, a large Teachers' Institute was organized under his charge and continued for three weeks, in connection with which and through his influence the State Teachers' Association was also formed. Under the management of Mr. Welch, having the full confidence of the Board of Education, untrammeled by special regulations, and aided by a small but efficient corps of teachers, the Institution, opened in March, 1853, became prosperous and successful in the highest degree. It won good will and encouragement from every side, the Legislature willingly appropriated such supplies as were needed to meet all its wants, while Mr. Welch labored assiduously in revising and perfecting the system of discipline and instruction, working faithfully both as an executive officer and practical teacher.

In 1854 he published his "*Analysis of the English Sentence*," which as an English Grammar has received the hearty commendation of very many prominent teachers. By request of the State Association he also commenced in 1856 a text-book upon Rhetoric and Composition, but intense application in its preparation brought on an attack of nervous and physical prostration which compelled an entire suspension of labor for nearly a year. His efforts were now directed to making the Normal School more strictly professional, and its privileges were restricted to those only who were preparing for duty as teachers. This disembarrassed the school of the greater part of the academic apartment, relieving it of an element that had long hindered the accomplishment of its true design, and Mr. Welch was able to carry out more fully his plans of professional instruction. And throughout the whole course of his connection





J. M. Gregory

[illegible] (1885) it has been most progressive in [illegible]

As the [illegible] the first and [illegible] hearty [illegible]

[illegible] taste for reading [illegible] was ready [illegible] to attend [illegible] After [illegible] his Senior year [illegible] time had charge [illegible]

[illegible] which he [illegible]



with this school, up to the present time, (1865,) it has been most progressive in its character. While maintaining its early character for sound and thorough scholarship, it has extended its course of drill and teaching, embracing what are called the newer and more natural methods of instruction, and has become the pride as it is the blessing of the State.

As the successful conductor of the first Union School, the efficient laborer in the first and nearly all succeeding State Institutes, the first President and hearty advocate and supporter of the State Teachers' Association, but mainly as the first principal of the State Normal School which has been raised to its present high standing mainly by his industry, wisdom, and indomitable energy, Mr. Welch will long be remembered in Michigan. His work upon Rhetoric and Composition was published in 1859—also a book upon Object Teaching in 1862.

JOHN M. GREGORY, A. M.

JOHN M. GREGORY was born at Sand Lake, Rensselaer county, N. Y., July 6th, 1822. Trained at home to habits of industry and economy, attending the district-schools, in winter at least, until thirteen years old, and with a strong taste for reading, which was gratified by ready access to the district library, he was ready in his eighteenth year, after another winter of common-school drill, to attempt the work of a higher education. After a year's teaching in Schoharie and Duchess counties, he entered the academy at Poughkeepsie, and thus pursuing his studies with an occasional interval of teaching, finished his preparatory and collegiate course, graduating at Union College in 1846. After pursuing for a year the study of law, which he had already commenced during his Senior year, but which he soon after gave up for the ministry, he for a time had charge of Ball's Seminary at Hoosic, N. J., but his health failing, then removed to Akron, Ohio. In 1852 he became principal of a classical school in Detroit, and in 1854, under the auspices of the State Association, assumed the duties of resident editor of the "Journal of Education," which had been established at his suggestion in January of that year. At the next session of the Association he was elected its President, and afterwards, resigning his school, devoted himself to the conduct of the Journal, as its editor and proprietor. He has from the first been an active and prominent participator in the proceedings of the State Association.

In 1859 Mr. Gregory was elected State Superintendent of Public Instruction, in which office he was retained for six years, faithfully performing its duties, and doing acceptably a good work for the cause of popular education throughout the State. In 1864 he accepted the Presidency of Kalamazoo College, taking for the theme of his Inaugural Discourse—"*The Right and Duty of Christianity to Educate.*"

FRANKLIN HUBBARD.

FRANKLIN HUBBARD was born in Leverett, Mass, July 13th, 1827. When nine years of age his father died, leaving him the oldest of four boys, and the circumstances of the family were such that two years afterwards he was engaged to work upon a farm and continued at this occupation until of age. He then, partly for his own benefit, partly for the sake of its influence upon his younger brothers, entered Uxbridge Academy for a few months, but continued through the year, then attended the Williston Seminary at Easthampton, from which he entered Amherst College, and graduated in 1854. During this time

he had spent several winters in teaching school, and after graduation, through the instrumentality of W. H. Wells, then principal of the State Normal School at Westfield, was invited to take the charge of the Public Schools at Adrian, Michigan, where he has since remained, using his best efforts to raise them to his own ever-advancing ideas of a true school. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1857.

ALEXANDER WINCHELL.

ALEXANDER WINCHELL was born at Spencer's Corners, Duchess county, N. Y., Dec. 31st, 1824. His parents having themselves been teachers, he was early pushed forward in his studies, which alternated with summers of labor upon the neighboring farms until his fourteenth year, when he was sent to South Lee, Mass., where he spent two years at district-school and academy, paying especial attention to chemistry. On his return he commenced teaching, with very satisfactory success, pursuing at the same time a course of thorough study, putting carefully to paper whatever he learned, and so going through algebra and surveying and commencing Greek. In the fall of 1842 he entered Amenia Seminary, and, not confining himself to the branches preparatory to college, took up the study of French, astronomy, mental philosophy, painting, and the piano forte, having at times six or eight daily exercises and carrying on all the studies of the "Teachers' Class," besides giving courses of instruction in penmanship, pen-drawing, and vocal music, spending the winter in teaching, acting at other times as assistant in the Seminary, and still finding leisure for participating largely in the Society meetings and for writing contributions, poetical or other, for newspapers and magazines. In 1841 he entered the Sophomore class at the Wesleyan University, Middletown, Ct., and graduated in 1847, having spent one winter in teaching at Winsted, Ct., and the second in a select school in his native town. During the next year he was engaged at the Pennington Male Seminary, N. J., where he took up the study of botany and Hebrew, kept a meteorological record, and delivered several public lectures upon astronomy and the electric telegraph. Declining a tutorship of mathematics at Wesleyan University, he now accepted a situation in Amenia Seminary. He here gave instruction in botany and made an extensive botanical collection, a catalogue of which, with the meteorological reports, were published in the Report of the Regents for 1851. From Oct., 1850, he was for three years proprietor of the Female Seminary at Eutaw, Alabama, and in Jan., 1854, became Professor of "Physics and Civil Engineering" in the University of Michigan. In 1855 he was appointed to the newly-created professorship of "Geology, Zoölogy, and Botany" in the University, though continuing to give instruction in some branches of the mathematics until 1857. In 1858 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association and during the following year had the editorial and financial management of the "*School Journal.*" In 1859 he received the appointment of State Geologist, which office he held for three years, publishing a report, and also a geological map of the State. In 1857 he published a "*Guide to the Pronunciation of Scientific Terms,*" and in 1858 a "*Synoptical View of the Geological Succession of Organic Types,*" in connection with his class instruction. Prof. Winchell has made frequent contributions to Silliman's Journal, and the proceedings of various scientific associations, of which he is a member.

ERASMUS J. BOYD, A. M.

ERASMUS J. BOYD was born at Hartwick, Otsego county, N. Y. He received a thorough academic education, entered the Sophomore class in Hamilton College, N. Y., and there graduated in 1837, having given especial attention to history, literature, and a course of general reading. After spending a year as principal of Harrison Academy in Kentucky, he entered the Union Theological Seminary at New York, and upon completing the course of study, was for some years engaged in preaching. His health failing, he was induced in 1850 to take charge of the Young Ladies' Seminary at Monroe, Michigan. To this institution he has for the past fifteen years devoted all his energies and has established for it a high character and reputation. He has at the same time identified himself with the cause of education in the State, and in his county has been a leading supporter of all educational movements. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1859, and several of his addresses and essays read at the meetings of the Association and upon other occasions have been published. In 1860 he was one of the board of editors of the "*Journal of Education.*"

ERASTUS L. RIPLEY

ERASTUS LATHROP RIPLEY was born at Weybridge, Vt., February 14th, 1822. After receiving the usual farmer boy's share of a common school education, he was, when fourteen years of age, placed as clerk in a dry goods store in Buffalo, N. Y. Returning home in 1839, he taught his first school at Shoreham, Vt., spent another year as clerk in New York city, and then, after three years' preparatory study at Kimball Union Academy, Meriden, N. H., entered Yale College and graduated in 1850. He gave instruction one term in the Washington Street Public School, then completed a course of law study in the Yale College School, was admitted to the bar in 1854, and removed to Michigan with the intention of pursuing that profession. He, however, accepted charge of the Union School at Jackson, which he held for over six years, until called in 1860 to the mathematical department of the State Normal School, which position he still retains. He was elected President of the State Association in 1860.

J. M. B. SILL.

J. M. B. SILL was born in Black Rock, N. Y., November 23d, 1831. His father, a native of Connecticut, removed to Oberlin, Ohio, in 1834, and to Jonesville, Michigan, in 1836. Left an orphan when eleven years of age, he thenceforward supported himself by farm labor and kept himself at common schools in Jonesville a portion of each year, until eighteen years old. In 1849 he taught a country school for two terms with success, and after graduating at the Normal School in 1854, immediately became a teacher in that Institution at a salary of $500—afterwards increased to $1,000. In 1863 he accepted the Superintendency of the Detroit Public Schools at a salary of $1,800, but resigned at the close of the year to take charge of a private seminary for young ladies. Mr. Sill, since his connection as teacher with the Normal School, has delivered numerous lectures before Teacher's Institutes and Literary Societies. Besides articles in various educational Journals, he published in 1859 an "*Elementary Grammar or Synthesis of the English Sentence.*" He was elected President of the State Association in 1861.

DANIEL PUTNAM.

DANIEL PUTNAM was born in Lyndeboro, New Hampshire, on the 8th of January, 1824. Until twenty years of age, his education was carried on by turns on the farm, in the carpenter's shop, in the lumber mill, and in the "district-school as it was"—an education no less effective and valuable than that which he afterwards attained. Leaving, by consent, his father's house at this period, without a dollar and without aid of any kind from kindred, he pursued and completed a course of academic and collegiate study, graduating at Dartmouth College in 1851. He afterwards spent some time in the study of analytical chemistry at Amherst College. In the meantime he had taught schools during the winters at Townsend and Danvers, Mass., and the Franklin Academy in New Hampshire. He was then for three or four years instructor in the languages in the Academic Institution at New Hampton, N. H., at which he had himself studied. In 1854 he was elected professor of Latin in the Kalamazoo College, Michigan, which he resigned in 1857 for the superintendency of the Public Schools of Kalamazoo. Upon the reorganization of the college in 1864, Mr. Putnam was invited to resume his former position, and accepted the invitation in the following year. He was elected President of the State Teachers' Association in 1864.

V. PENNSYLVANIA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION,

WITH A SKETCH OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN THE STATE.

FROM causes unavoidable, common school education in Pennsylvania has been a plant of slow growth. Sparseness of population, diversity of origin and language, antagonism of religious sects, combined to prevent the American idea of education from taking root, and to retard its progress. The necessity, to the welfare of the State, of making provision for public education was early recognized, and one of the first acts of Penn was the establishment of a school for primary instruction.* Among the earliest of the colonial records we find a petition from leading citizens for the establishment of a free school. When the constitution was framed it was distinctly announced that "the Legislature shall, as soon as may be convenient, provide for the establishment of schools, in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis."

In 1689 the Society of Friends established in Philadelphia a public school. In 1749, under the direction and organizing hand of Dr. Franklin, a charter was secured, and an institution was put in operation under the name and title of "College, Academy and Charity School of Pennsylvania." From this time till the beginning of the present century the efforts of individuals, and the resources of the State, seem to have been chiefly directed to establishing colleges † throughout the various inhabited sections, and of placing them in successful operation. For this purpose the colonial govern-

* At a Council held at Philadelphia, ye 26th of ye 10th month, 1683.

PRESENT:

WM. PENN, Propor. & Govr.

Tho. Holmes, Wm. Haigue, Wm. Clayton, Lasse Cock.

The Govr. and Provll. Councill having taken into their Serious Consideration the great Necessity there is of a Scool Master for ye Instruction & Sober Education of Youth in the towne of Philadelphia, Sent for Enock flower, an Inhabitant of the said Towne, who for twenty year past hath been exercised in that care and Imployment in England, to whom haveing Communicated their Minds, he Embraced it upon these following termes: to Learne to read English 4s. by the Quarter, to learne to read and write 6s by ye Quarter, to learne to read, Write and Cast accot 8s by ye Quarter; for Boarding a Scholler, that is to say, dyet, Washing, Lodging & Scooling, Tenn pounds for one whole year.—*Colonial Records*, Vol. I, p. 91.

† The University of Pennsylvania was chartered in 1753, Dickinson College in 1783, Franklin and Marshall College in 1787, and Jefferson College in 1802.

ment, and afterwards the Legislature, made large grants of lands and revenues accruing from public domain.

Commencing near the opening of the present century and continuing for a period of over thirty years, great activity was manifested in establishing County Academies. During this period the Legislature granted charters for academies in forty-one counties.* An appropriation was made to each of these of money, in sums varying from two to six thousand dollars, for the erection of buildings at the county seats, and, in several cases, quite extensive land-grants were secured for their support.

The policy was adopted by the Legislature in 1809 of educating the poor gratis.† The names of children of indigent parents were enrolled by the assessors, and they were sent to the most convenient school, their tuition being paid out of the county treasury. This system was continued about thirty years. In the meantime the Lancasterian, or monitor schools, were inaugurated in many of the principal cities and towns in the eastern part of the State, and for a while enjoyed a considerable degree of prosperity.

In 1834 the Legislature passed the first general law for the establishment of a system of Education by Common Schools.‡ It was matured and prepared by Samuel Breck, a member of the Senate from Philadelphia. It was passed without serious opposition; but was found in practice to be exceedingly complex and unwieldy. The opposition to it in the succeeding Legislature was most bitter, and while a bill was under consideration in the Senate to remedy its defects, a substitute was offered by the opposition, renewing the old system of educating poor children gratis, and was carried. It was now almost certain that the substitute would be carried in the House. It was, indeed, a critical moment for the School System. But there chanced to be a man in the House equal to the emergency. That man was Thaddeus Stevens. He was then in the full strength of early manhood, and when the bill came up for consideration he took the floor and delivered one of the most powerful and persuasive speeches ever heard in those legislative halls. The effect was overwhelming. The opposition were disarmed. The wavering were confirmed, and the friends of the measure were fired with new zeal. The Senate bill was defeated, and the law of '34 was left still in force. This, though a triumph, was only a negative

* Armstrong, Beaver, Bradford, Bucks, Butler, Cambria, Centre, Chester, Clarion, Clearfield, Clinton, Crawford, Dauphin, Erie, Franklin, Greene, Huntingdon, Indiana, Jefferson, Juniata, Lebanon, Lehigh, Luzerne, McKean, Monroe, Mifflin, Montgomery, Northumberland, Perry, Pike Potter, Schuylkill, Somerset, Tioga, Union, Venango, Warren, Wayne, Westmoreland, York.

† Act of April 4, 1809. ‡ Act of April 1st, 1834.

one. The principle was preserved, but an objectionable and very odious law was still in operation, and it was soon found by the friends of the system that it could never be successfully administered.

At the session of the Legislature of 1836, the final struggle was to come. An entirely new bill was drawn by Dr. George Smith, a member of the Senate from Delaware county, and chairman of the joint committee of the two Houses on education. This bill, as originally drawn, was remarkable for its far-reaching aims, its simplicity, its practicability, and its general fitness. When viewed by the light of more than a quarter of a century's experience, it must be regarded as a masterpiece, and will never cease to inspire admiration. The friends of education in future generations, will not fail to hold the name of its author in grateful remembrance.

The bill encountered opposition in both branches of the Legislature, and an attempt was made to kill it by amendments. Many of these were adopted, and its simplicity and merit greatly impaired. But it was finally, at the adjourned session, adopted, and became the general school law of the State.* In its operation it has met with opposition, it has been often imperfectly administered, and its details have beeen shockingly neglected; but notwithstanding all the obstacles that have impeded its progress, it has steadily gained in the affections of the people, its fruits have annually been fairer and more abundant, and in future times it will stand as the crowning glory of the generation which enacted and inaugurated it.

The adoption of the new law was left to a vote of the people in the several districts. It, however, went rapidly into operation. To smooth the way, and attach public favor to its beneficient provisions, the Secretary of State, then *ex-officio* Superintendent of Common Schools, Mr. T. H. Burrowes, made a journey through most of the counties, and addressed the people. In his annual report to the Legislature in 1838 he sketched the proportions which the system ought to assume, but which for many years remained unattained, and which it has taken nearly thirty years to realize.

One of the chief difficulties in putting the new law in operation was that of securing competent teachers. The Legislature perceived this difficulty, and recognized the necessity of providing for their education at the public expense, even previous to its passage. In the acts for grants of money and lands to Colleges and Academies, it was provided that in consideration of receiving these appropriations, they should educate a number of teachers for public schools

* Act of June 13th, 1836.

gratis. These provisions served a useful purpose, but did not prove effective in producing a skilled body of teachers. The remedy for these evils, and the elevation of the profession, was destined to be brought about by a movement on the part of the teachers themselves.

ATTEMPTS AT ORGANIZATION.

To awaken an interest in education in the popular mind, to arouse the teacher to a sense of his duties, and to infuse life and energy into the pupils, was not a work that could be accomplished by lawmakers. It was a work that could not be done by institutions of learning devoted to other functions. It was reserved for the teacher to put his own shoulder to the wheel, and attempt something for himself.

There had been previously considerable progress made in the city of Philadelphia, but the influence had been little felt outside its limits. An association was formed among the city teachers as early as 1813, and in 1818 a Common School law was passed and inaugurated.* In 1832–3 another educational association was formed and a school journal was started. Through the labors of Mr. Josiah Holbrook, lyceums were established, in which the interests of popular education were discussed. The writings of Mr. Walter R. Johnson, Mr. Chandler and others exerted considerable influence upon the public mind, and prepared it for united effort.

But the first signs of life in the State at large were manifested in the attempts at organization of County Institutes and associations. Meetings were held for this purpose in several counties in different parts of the State at about the same time. In Crawford county, on the 25th of March, 1850, was organized the first regular Teachers' Institute. It has continued to hold a regular semi-annual session of a week's duration from that time to the present. From the fact that it was the pioneer in this class of educational agencies, it may be of interest, as a matter of historical record, to give a brief account of it. In 1853 was published a pamphlet of its proceedings, in which was contained a sketch of its origin and progress drawn up by the hand of the late Dr. Barker, then President of Alleghany College, and always the steadfast friend of the common school teacher. The following is an extract from that sketch:

"The sixth semi-annual report of the proceedings of the Crawford County Teachers' Institute is presented to the public with mingled emotions of gratitude and hope. The past history of this association is one on which every friend of popular education, indeed, of

* Act of March 3, 1818.

every friend of humanity and of his race, must dwell with unalloyed pleasure, while the omens of its future prosperity, give us reason to expect that it is destined to enjoy a long career of usefulness and honor. It is now nearly three years since several young men, (all of whom were more or less intimately connected with the business of teaching in our public schools) deploring the public apathy in regard to the common schools in this and adjoining counties, and the lamentable deficiency in knowledge, unity of action, and sympathy, apparent among teachers, began to cast about to find an appropriate remedy for existing evils. Foremost among these praiseworthy young men was Mr. J. F. Hicks, who, unsolicited and without the expectation of receiving any return of honor or emolument for his labor, set out as a missionary of education on a tour of exploration throughout Mercer and Crawford counties. He visited in person a large number of schools, and conversed with teachers and parents on the subject of popular education, traveling for this purpose on foot in the depth of a most inclement winter. Thanks to his most philanthropic efforts and those of a few others associated with him, the attention of teachers was so far aroused, and so much interest was elicited, that they responded in large numbers, to a call for a public meeting to be held in the village of Exchangeville, in Mercer county, on the third of February, 1850. That meeting, after a deliberate survey of the system of public schools, and of the imperative duty devolved on them as teachers, to do what lay in their power, to render their schools more efficient nurseries of morality and knowledge, solemnly united in a fraternity for this purpose, and drew up a Constitution which contemplated permanent organization. They adjourned to meet again on the 25th of March, following, in Meadville, and at this place accordingly was held the first regular meeting of the Association.

"It is unnecessary to pursue this history farther. Suffice it to say that each successive half year has witnessed the reassemblage of a large number of actual teachers, inspired with a common zeal, and laboring in a common cause, the cause of truth and virtue. Thus far harmony, no less than energy, has marked the deliberations of this body, progress has been its watchword, and, under its auspices, a vast amount of information has been diffused through the community at large in regard to the proper province of public schools. To the body of teachers it has been from the beginning an occasion of a most pleasing reunion, a bond of sympathy, a wise friend and counselor, and a voice of admonition and exhortation gently chiding our past delinquencies and urging us forward with a spirit more

earnest and more enlightened in our career of noble and benevolent efforts." *

This account of the origin of this, the first Institute, is substantially the history of the organization and development of County Institutes throughout the State. A few months later, in September, 1850, was organized the "Philadelphia Association of the Principals of Public Schools." It was provided in the constitution that the male principals of the Public Schools of Philadelphia should compose this Association, and that the regular meetings should be held on the first Saturday in each month.† An Institute was held in the city of Erie on the 8th of September, 1851, but was not made a permanent organization, and no subsequent meetings were held till 1853.‡ During the same year was organized the Lancaster County Educational Association. On the 11th of June, 1851, Mr. John Martin, teacher in Penn township, with the concurrence of Mr. John Beck, of Letiz, and Mr. Henry Stauffer, of East Lampeter issued a call which was published in the Lancaster press for a meeting of teachers for the purpose of perfecting an organization. On the 2d of August following, a preliminary meeting was held in the city of Lancaster, and on the 4th of October a permanent organization was effected. The constitution provided that Teachers and friends of education should be eligible to membership, that the meetings should be held quarterly, and that the general business of the Association should be managed by a Standing Committee. At one of the early meetings a stirring address was delivered by Bishop Potter, which had a marked influence upon the educational spirit of the teachers, and really marked a new era in the development of the educational energies of the county.§ Out of this Association was developed the Lancaster County Institute, which was organized Jan. 24th, 1853, and has continued to hold regular annual meetings since.‖

One of the most efficient agencies in stimulating the organization of these associations was the Pennsylvania School Journal, which was established in January, 1852, by Mr. T. H. Burrowes, of Lancaster. It was first established in compliance with a resolution passed by the Lancaster County Association, and intended as the organ of that body. At the end of six months it was enlarged from sixteen to thirty-two pages, and was made the organ of the teachers of the State.

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* Pamphlet of Proceedings, 1852, p. 3. † Pa. School Journal, Vol. I., p. 231.
‡ Report of Executive Committee, Dec., 1853, of State Teachers' Association.
§ Pa. School Journal, Vol. I., p. 12. ‖ Pa. School Journal, Vol. I., p. 394.

In the track of these pioneer organizations, institutes were established in Schuylkill, Alleghany, Lawrence, Warren, Wayne, Washington, Indiana, Westmoreland, Chester, Fayette, Beaver, Berks and Blair counties,* and in less than three years from the time the first was held, Institutes or Associations had been established in no less than forty-seven counties. At first, they were very imperfectly managed, and their true function was little understood; but they served the important purpose of arousing public sentiment, of inspiring teachers with a sense of their high vocation, and opened the way for an organization of broader scope, and more enlarged means of usefulness.

ORGANIZATION OF STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

The State Association grew out of a wide-felt necessity for some organized, united effort on the part of the friends of education to effect certain much needed improvements in the school system of the State, and the elevation of the standard of teaching by a comparison and readjustment of views. A movement seems to have been made at about the same time in several of the County Institutes, looking to the establishment of some State organization. In the Philadelphia Association, on the 6th of Nov., 1852, the following resolutions were adopted:

"*Resolved*, That the Association is in favor of holding a Teachers' Convention, at an early day, for the purpose of promoting the cause of Common School Education in Pennsylvania.

"*Resolved*, That correspondence be solicited from the several Associations throughout the State, upon the propriety of carrying the above resolution into effect."†

Similar resolutions were passed by the Alleghany Association, proposing the 28th of Dec. as the time, and Harrisburg as the place of meeting. Accordingly there was issued and published in the December number of the School Journal the following call for a *State Educational Convention.*‡

"A State Convention of teachers and friends of Education will be held in Harrisburg, on Tuesday the 28th inst., (Dec., 1852) in which it is hoped that every County and educational society of the State will be represented. Matters of great interest to Teachers and all others engaged in the cause of general education will be discussed and acted on. All who realize the importance of the object should therefore take the necessary steps to have their respective sections of the State fully represented."

* Report of Executive Committee of State Teachers' Association, Dec., 1853.
† Pa. School Journal, Vol. I., p. 232. ‡ Pa. School Journal, Vol. I., p. 257.

In compliance with this call a meeting was held in the Court House in Harrisburg at the appointed time, and continued in session two days. The number was small, but embraced some of the most active teachers and educators in the State. The North-western counties were not represented, owing to the great distance to be traveled, and the difficulty, without railroads, in reaching the place of meeting. A preliminary organization was formed by electing Mr. T. H. Burrowes as President; John H. Brown, James Thompson, A. O. Heister and J. M. McElroy, as Vice-Presidents; James G. Barnwell and A. K. Browne, as Secretaries; and Conley Plotts as Treasurer. The subject which principally occupied the attention of the meeting during the early sessions, was the object of the Association, and the purposes which the organization should subserve. The views of a large number of the members upon this topic were freely expressed, and at the conclusion of its consideration, a Committee, consisting of Conley Plotts of Philadelphia, L. T. Covell of Pittsburg, and D. G. Bush of Bradford Co., were appointed to prepare a Constitution in conformity with the general sense of the meeting. This, after some discussion and amendments, was adopted in the following form:

PREAMBLE.*

As a means of elevating the profession of Teaching and of promoting the interests of Education in Pennsylvania, we, whose names are affixed, do unite ourselves together under the following Constitution:

Art. I. This organization shall be known by the title of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association.

Art. II. The officers of this Association shall be a President, four Vice-Presidents, two Recording Secretaries, a Corresponding Secretary, a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee to consist of five persons.

Art. III. It shall be the duty of the President to preside at all meetings of the Association. In case of the absence or inability of the President to discharge the duties of his office, the same shall devolve upon one of the Vice-Presidents.

Art. IV. The Recording Secretary shall perform the duties usually devolving upon such officers.

Art. V. The Corresponding Secretary shall conduct the correspondence of the Association, under the direction of the Executive Committee.

Art. VI. It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive and keep all funds belonging to the Association, pay out the same only on orders signed by the Chairman of the Executive Committee, and report the condition of the finances at each annual meeting of the Association.

Art. VII. The Executive Committee shall carry into effect all orders and resolutions of the Association, and shall devise and put into operation such other measures, not inconsistent with the object of the Association, as they shall deem best; they shall keep a full record of their proceedings, and present an annual report to the Association.

Art. VIII. Any Teacher of this Commonwealth may become a member of this Association by signing this Constitution and paying into the treasury one dollar, and shall continue his membership by the annual payment of one dollar thereafter.

Art. IX. Any friend of Education, on being proposed, may be elected an

* Pa. School Journal, Vol. II., p. 9.

honorary member of this Association, by contributing to the treasury as specified in Article eight.

Art. X. The officers of this Association shall be elected by ballot at the last stated meeting in each year, and such officers shall enter upon the duties of their respective offices at the next meeting thereafter.

Art. XI. One stated meeting of the Association shall be held annually during the Christmas holydays, the day and place being agreed on at each previous stated meeting; any other meeting to be left to the discretion of the Executive Committee.

Art. XII. This Constitution may be altered or amended by a majority of the members present at any regular meeting, when notice of such intended alteration shall have been given at a previous session.

After the adoption of the Constitution, the following gentlemen were elected as the first regular board of officers: John H. Brown, President; James Thompson, Wm. Roberts, L. T. Covell and M. McElroy, Vice-Presidents; John Joyce and A. K. Browne, Recording Secretaries; James G. Barnwell, Corresponding Secretary; Conley Plotts, Treasurer; S. D. Ingram, J. P. Wickersham, Wm. Travis, H. R. Warriner and J. M. Barrat, Executive Committee. The topic of interest that was most fully discussed, was that of the thorough examination of all teachers employed in the public schools, by a practical teacher in the capacity of a *County Superintendent of Common Schools.* The importance of having this duty thoroughly performed, and of so amending the School Law as to provide for the employment of such an officer, was warmly urged. During the discussion of this topic, His Excellency Wm. Bigler, Governor of the Commonwealth, and F. W. Hughes, Secretary of State, and *ex-officio* Superintendent of Common Schools, were present by invitation, and delivered speeches in favor of the measure. The importance of inaugurating a system of *Schools for the Professional Training of Teachers*, and until these could be established of encouraging the holding of *Teachers' Institutes*, was also discussed. A resolution was passed constituting the President and Vice-Presidents a committee to memorialize the Legislature to make an appropriation to defray the expenses of County Institutes. The subject of changing the School Law so as to *Increase the minimum term for keeping open the Public Schools* from three to six months was discussed, and a resolution to that effect adopted. Lectures were delivered by William Travis on the "*Responsibility and Qualification of Teachers*," and by H. R. Warriner on "*Poetry.*" From this brief outline of the proceedings and discussions at this first meeting, it will be seen that the subjects broached were of vital importance to the school system. A great point was gained by having them discussed by the teachers and friends of education, men of all political parties, and to enlist the sympathies, and a participation in the debate, of

the Governor of the State and the official head of the School Department.

THE FIRST REGULAR MEETING of the Association was held at Pittsburg on the 5th, 6th and 8th days of August, 1853. It was presided over by the President, John H. Brown, who, after the transaction of some miscellaneous business, delivered his inaugural address, on the "*Duties and Responsibilities of the Teacher.*" The report of the Committee appointed at the previous meeting on "*Normal Schools*" was read by the chairman, T. H. Burrowes, Esq., of Lancaster. This report recited the recommendations of the several Superintendents since 1834, and urged in strong terms that the teacher should himself press his claims upon the Legislature by way of memorial. It elicited a general discussion from the ablest debaters present. An objection was urged against immediate action on the ground that the nature of Normal Schools was not generally understood by teachers, and no plan for their establishment had as yet been matured. But the sense of the meeting seemed to be favorable to immediate action; and, at the close of the discussion, a resolution was adopted instructing the Committee to prepare a memorial to the Legislature upon the subject, to be read at the next meeting of the Association. A prominent feature at this meeting was the "*Reports of the Counties,*" which consisted of brief statements of the educational life and activity in each county. The colleges, academies and seminaries were generally reported in a flourishing condition; but the statements respecting common schools were in a desponding mood. A report on the "*Uses and Abuses of Text Books,*" was read by Prof. James Thompson, chairman of the committee to whom the subject had been referred. The subject of "*Primary Schools*" was discussed at considerable length, and interesting speeches were delivered by Bishop Potter, and Dr. Lord of Ohio. Lectures and addresses were delivered by Prof. John F. Stoddard on "*Education and the Educator;*" by Lorin Andrews on "*Teachers' Institutes,*" and by John Gregory on the "*Mind.*" The general attendance from all parts of the State was one of the most encouraging features. The discussions developed a general view of education throughout the whole State. The principal defects in the common school system were, the want of competent teachers, ignorance of primary instruction, and the general apathy and indifference of parents. The remedies proposed were Normal Schools for educating teachers, and Teachers' Institutes for arousing and directing public sentiment and stimulating teachers to higher attainments. In furtherance of the last object it was ordered that

the Executive Committee issue a circular on the subject and send a copy to teachers in each county.

THE SECOND MEETING of the Association was held at Lancaster on the 27th, 28th and 29th of Dec., 1853, and was presided over by John H. Brown, President. The committee on *Normal Schools*, continued from the last meeting made a verbal report, and read a *Memorial* prepared for presentation to the Legislature, which was adopted. The chairman of the Executive Committee, William Travis, read their annual report, containing a general review of the operations of the Association since its organization, and a sketch of the progress made in common school education. Certain improvements in the law, and in the manner of administering it, were strongly urged. A report on "*State and County Superintendents*" was read by Wm. Travis, chairman, of the committee to whom this subject had been previously referred. Considerable discussion was elicited by this report. By the provisions of the School Law of 1836, the Secretary of the Commonwealth, was, by virtue of his office, the official head of the School Department. In the multiplicity of his duties as Secretary, it was impossible for him to give that attention that was demanded to organize and conduct the School System. Besides, the labor of the latter office was principally performed by the Deputy Superintendent. It was therefore urged that the two offices should be separated. A strong appeal was also made for a provision for an officer for each county, a practical teacher, whose duties should be,—1. To examine teachers; 2. To hold institutes and public meetings; 3. To visit as many schools as possible; 4. To act as a medium of communication between the State Superintendent and the local boards, to certify to the correctness of all reports and affidavits, and to make an annual report. A report on "*Primary Schools*" was read by A. M. Grow, chairman of committee. A lecture was delivered by Prof. James Thompson on "*Language.*" An election was held for a board of officers for the ensuing year which resulted as follows: James Thompson, President; A. T. Wright, Elias Schneider, Wm. Travis and W. V. Davis, Vice-Presidents; John Joyce and A. K. Browne, Recording Secretaries; J. G. Barnwell, Corresponding Secretary; and Conly Plotts, Treasurer. In connection with this session *Informal Meetings*, previous to, and after the regular meetings, were held, at which special school-room duties were discussed. These exercises proved of much value and interest.

THE THIRD MEETING of the Association was held at Pottsville from 1st to 3d of August, 1854, and was presided over by James

Thompson, President. During the interval between this and the preceding meeting, the Legislature had made a revision of the School Law, introducing some of the best features of the original bill as drawn by Dr. Smith in 1836; but which at the time were stricken out and modified by amendments. The County Superintendency, a feature which the Association had from its opening session labored to magnify and recommend, was also incorporated. This revised law also provided for the publication of a School Architecture, and made the School Journal the official organ of the School Department, features which have proved most efficient agencies in administering it.

An inaugural address was delivered at the opening of the meeting on the "*Philosophy of Education*," by the President. The report on "*Vocal Music*" was read by John H. Brown, chairman of committee. A report was read by W. V. Davis, chairman of committee, on "*Compulsory Attendance at School.*" A report on the "*Co-education of the Sexes*," was read by J. P. Wickersham, chairman of committee. On this question a spirited debate sprang up, which was continued through the greater part of two days. The report was a strong statement of the affirmative of the question, but its positions were persistently assailed. On the following resolution which was introduced early in the session: viz., "*Resolved*, That the report be accepted, and that the Association approve of its sentiments," a vote was taken, which resulted in its passage by 29 yeas to 7 nays. A committee was, however, appointed from among the opponents of the system to report at the next meeting. A report was read by E. Lamborn, chairman of committee, on "*Teaching Composition and Declamation.*" A report was read by T. H. Burrowes, Esq., chairman of committee, on the "*Past, Present and Future of the Teachers of Pennsylvania.*" A report was read by A. K. Brown, chairman of committee, on the "*Influence of Female Teachers.*" A report was read by Wm. Travis, chairman of committee, on a "*Paid Agency*," and also on the "*Moral Influence of the Teacher.*" No formal lectures or addresses, aside from the inaugural of the President, were delivered, though the reports of the committees were elaborated with great care, and form a set of very valuable papers.

THE FOURTH MEETING of the Association was held at Lewistown from Dec. 26th to 29th, 1854, and was presided over, in the absence of the President, by John F. Stoddard, President *pro tem.*, and by W. V. Davis, Vice-President. The report of the Executive Committee, read by J. P. Wickersham, chairman, reviewed the condition of com-

mon school education, and referred particularly to the changes inaugurated by the recent legislation. Caution was counseled, lest by pushing on changes too rapidly, the advantages already gained be lost. A report on "*School District Libraries*" was read by the chairman of committee, James R. Challen, Jr. A report on the "*Ancient Languages*" was read by the chairman of committee, W. V. Davis. A report was read on "*Physiology and Ventilation*" by the chairman of committee, D. Laughlin. This report was very fully and ably discussed, and the most approved methods of ventilation particularly described. Many of the views here presented were embodied in the new State School Architecture, which was soon after issued from the press. It was recommended by resolution that physiology be made a regular common school branch, as the most effectual means of producing a more enlightened state of public sentiment. A report was read on the "*Co-education of the Sexes*" by John H. Brown, chairman of committee. This report was followed by a long and very animated discussion, as at the previous meeting. The committee took strong ground in favor of the separate education of the sexes, and in support of their position quoted the practice of other nations, and many portions of our own country; but chiefly founded their argument on the assertion that the male demands a different course of education from the female. In opposition to this view it was maintained that from the constitution of society, from the nature of the family, the church, and the various avocations in life, it was necessary and designed that they should be educated together. This subject has rarely been more ably discussed than at these two meetings of the Association. A lecture was delivered by Alfred L. Kennedy, M. D., on the "*Polytechnic Colleges of Europe.*" An election was held which resulted in the choice of the following officers: W. V. Davis, President; A. L. Kennedy, H. Williams, J. P. Wickersham and W. J. Gibson, Vice-Presidents; Ira C. Mitchell and R. McDevitt, Recording Secretaries; Amos Row, Treasurer; A. M. Gow, J. F. Stoddard, J. H. Brown, Jos. J. Stutzman and J. J. Wolcott, Executive Committee.

THE FIFTH MEETING of the Association was held at Pittsburg, from August 7th to 9th, 1855, and was presided over by W. V. Davis, President. During this, the first year of the County Superintendency, Mr. J. P. Wickersham, County Superintendent of Lancaster county, had opened and conducted, in conjunction with a corps of competent instructors, a three months' Institute, or County Normal School. That Institute was the origin of the present flourishing State Normal School of the Second District, located at Millers-

ville. Mr. Wickersham was called on for an account of that experiment. This introduced the general subject of State and County Normal Schools, which led to a protracted discussion, occupying more time than any and all other subjects discussed. The Legislature had, at the two previous sessions, had bills under consideration for the establishment of State Institutions; but had failed, as yet, to enact a law upon the subject. The first part of the discussion was upon the establishment of State Schools for the thorough and systematic training of teachers. But it would take time to establish these schools, and when established, some time would be required before a trained corps of teachers would be ready for labor. Hence, the necessity of county or temporary Normal Schools to be held for three months in the year, and to be conducted by county superintendents, for immediate results, formed the subject of the concluding part of the discussion. It was conducted with great warmth, and many useful facts and statements were elicited. It no doubt exerted an important influence in securing the passage of the Normal School Law. A report on the "*Workings of Public Schools in Philadelphia*," was read by Wm. Roberts, chairman of committee. A report on the "*Development of the Religious Faculties*" was read by Rev. H. Dodge, chairman of committee. A report on "*School Discipline*" was read by A. M. Gow, chairman of committee. The regular annual address was delivered by the President, on the "*Claims and Future Prospects of the Teacher.*" The announcement of the death of John H. Brown, the first President of the Association, and of L. T. Covell, a Vice-President, called forth feeling and appropriate remarks and resolutions.

The Sixth Meeting of the Association was held at Philadelphia from Dec. 26th to 29th, 1855, and was presided over by W. V. Davis, President. The report of the Executive Committee was read by the chairman, A. M. Gow. It contained a brief review of the progress of common school education, with an appendix showing the number and length of County Institutes held during the year, and the names of newspapers in which were educational departments. By this statement it was shown that seventy institutes had been held, varying in length from one day to one week, and that thirty county newspapers had educational columns. A resolution requesting State aid to County Institutes drew forth a spirited discussion. A report "*On the Development of the Moral Faculties*" was read by J. P. Wickersham. A report on the "*Development of the Physical Faculties*" was read by A. L. Kennedy, M. D. A report on "*The School System of Pennsylvania*" was read by S. P.

Bollman. A report on "*Public Examinations and Exhibitions*" was read by A. Burtt. An essay on the "*Teacher and his Reward*" was read by Mrs. M. E. Mitchell. An address was delivered by J. C. Adamson, D. D., on the "*Study of Natural History.*" A memoir of the life and services of John H. Brown, first President of the Association, was read by Mr. Roberts. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: J. P. Wickersham, President; B. M. Kerr, R. C. Allison, A. K. Brown and J. N. Barrett, Vice-Presidents; J. H. Orvis and A. T. Douthett, Recording Secretaries; Joseph Fell, Corresponding Secretary; Rev. Wm. A. Good, A. Burtt, Wm. V. Davis, H. R. Warriner and A. M. Gow, Executive Committee.

THE SEVENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Williamsport from the 12th to the 14th of August, 1856, and was presided over by J. P. Wickersham, President. The regular inaugural address was delivered by the President on "*Philosophy of Teaching.*" A report on "*Mental Discipline*" was read by Conly Plotts. A report on "*High Schools*" was read by Philotus Dean. A report on "*The Relation of Secular and Sunday Schools*" was read by A. M. Gow. The principal debate at this session was had upon this report. The subject of parochial or sectarian schools in their influence upon pupils and upon the common school system, was warmly debated. The importance of improving the methods of moral instruction in the public schools, and having the bible read as a stated exercise was urged by argument and appeal with great force. A report on "*Truancy, its Causes and Cure*" was read by Charles W. Deans. A report on the "*Number of Hours of School per Day*" was read by J. H. Orvis. An essay on "*Moral, Religious and Intellectual Instruction*" was read by Miss M. Edgar. Addresses were delivered by Rt. Rev. Alonzo Potter, D. D., on "*Complete Culture,*" and by Charles Davies, L L. D., on the "*Theory of Education.*" The attendance at this was larger than at any previous meeting, there being one hundred and eighty members present.

THE EIGHTH MEETING of the Association was held at Harrisburg from Dec. 30th to Jan. 1st, 1856–7, and was presided over by J. P. Wickersham, President. The report of the Executive Committee was read by the chairman, W. V. Davis. In addition to the usual survey of educational progress presented by the report, the subject of visitation by State Superintendent was referred to, and its importance as a means of arousing public sentiment and exciting an interest in the county institutes, particularly pointed out. The report also contained a recommendation that the office of Superintendent of

Common Schools be separated from that of Secretary of the Commonwealth, and an independent department created. A report on "*Normal Schools*" was read by J. F. Stoddard. Upon this report a warm debate arose upon the true sphere of a Normal School. The prevailing opinion was that in addition to a thorough knowledge of the branches to be taught, there should be imparted an acquaintance with the *Theory* and the *Practice* of Teaching. A report on the "*Examination of Teachers*" was read by B. M. Kerr. A report on "*Teaching Mathematics*" was read by E. Brooks. A resolution was offered early in the session, asking the Legislature to grant State aid to Teachers' Institutes; also one declaring the State system incomplete without some provision for Normal Schools. Upon the former of these resolutions a long and well-conducted debate ensued, calculated to intensify the feelings of teachers in its favor, and to awaken the public mind to its importance. A lecture was delivered on "*The Common School System of Germany*" by B. S. Schenck, D. D. The Association was favored with the presence of, and addresses by, His Excellency James Pollock, Governor of the Commonwealth; Mr. Banks, Auditor General; Andrew G. Curtin, Secretary of the Commonwealth, and Henry C. Hickok, Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools. Delegates were appointed, embracing the Superintendent of Common Schools, to the New York State Association to be held at Binghampton. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: William Roberts, President; Albert Owen, D. Heckendom, J. J. Stine and Rev. J. S. Crumbaugh, Vice-Presidents; J. J. Stutzman, R. McDivitt, Recording Secretaries; Joseph Fell, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; B. M. Kerr, J. F. Stoddard, Isaac Black, A. D. Hawn and A. K. Brown, Executive Committee.

THE NINTH MEETING of the Association was held at Chambersburg from August 11th to 13th, 1857, and was presided over by Wm. Roberts, President. Since the last meeting of the Association in December, the Legislature had passed the act asked for, separating the school Superintendence from that of the Secretaryship of the Commonwealth, and erecting an independent department with a superintendent, a deputy, and adequate clerical force. The first Superintendent under the new law was Henry C. Hickok, to whose industry and zeal in organizing, and carrying into efficient operation, the peculiar and somewhat intricate features of the system, its marvelous success was in a great measure due. After the usual preliminary business the President delivered his inaugural address. A report on "*The Effect of General Intellectual Culture on Manual*

Labor" was read by T. H. Burrowes, Esq. A report on "*The Claims of Teaching to the Rank of a Profession*" was read by J. P. Wickersham. An essay on "*Moral and Religious Instruction*," prepared by Mrs. Ira C. Mitchell, was read by the Secretary. An essay on "*School Discipline*" was read by S. B. McCormick. A resolution introduced on the subject of Permanent State Teachers' Certificates was discussed at considerable length, and the propriety of the measure strongly urged. An address was delivered by Hon. Henry C. Hickok on "*The Common School System of Pennsylvania.*" Addresses were also delivered by the venerable Ex-Governor Ritner and Mr. Isaac Hazlehurst.

THE TENTH MEETING of the Association was held in the borough of Indiana from Dec. 29th to 31st, 1857, and was presided over by Wm. Roberts, President. A report "*On the Best Mode of Establishing Normal Schools*" was read by J. J. Stutzman. At the preceding session of the Legislature, a law, providing for a complete system of Normal Schools, had been passed. It made a division of the State into twelve nearly equal districts as to population, and provided for the establishment of a school capable of accommodating and instructing at least 300 pupils in each. It made no appropriation of money for lands or buildings. This report was based upon the act, and was principally devoted to devising plans for their establishment. An account was given, in the course of the discussion, of private Normal Schools and of Academies having teachers' classes, and a detail of the manner in which such schools could become State Institutions. A report "*On Methods of Teaching*" was read by A. Burtt. A report "*On the Dark and Bright Side of Teaching*" was read by S. B. McCormick. A report on "*Methods of Examining Teachers*" was read by E. Lamborn. A report on the "*Relation of Common Schools to the Higher Institutions of Learning*" was read by J. R. Sypher. The constitution was so amended as to provide for the holding the annual meeting in August, and for only one meeting a year. Delegates were appointed to the New York Association. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: John F. Stoddard, President; S. P. Bollman, J. N. Caldwell, E. Lamborn and S. D. Ingram, Vice-Presidents; J. J. Stutzman and E. D. B. Porter, Recording Secretaries; J. N. Pierce, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; B. M. Kerr, S. Findley, J. L. Richardson, Wm. Roberts and J. T. Valentine, Executive Committee.

THE ELEVENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Scranton from August 10th to 12th, 1858, and was presided over by John F.

Stoddard, President. A delegation from the New York State Association was introduced and elected as honorary members. The President delivered the usual inaugural address. It was principally devoted to the school system of the State, with a recital of the several steps in its progress and improvement. By the provisions of the 41st section of the law of 1854, the County Superintendent is vested with the power to annul the certificate of a teacher, granted either by himself or by any of his predecessors in office. A resolution was offered early in the session recommending the repeal of this feature. The principal discussion was upon this topic. It was not alleged that any abuse of the power had in any case occurred, but that it was liable to occur, and that the rights of the teacher were insecure in consequence. At the close of the discussion the resolution was voted down by a large majority. A report on the "*Study of Mathematics*" was read by C. R. Coburn. An essay on "*The Sunny Side of Teaching*" was read by Miss M. E. Buckingham. An address was delivered by C. L. Lewis on the "*Importance and Method of the Study of History.*" The Association was more numerously attended than at any previous meeting. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: Frank Taylor, M. D., President; S. D. Ingram, J. L. Richardson, E. Lamborn and W. V. Davis, Vice-Presidents; S. A. Terrel and Wm. Sterling, Recording Secretaries; E. D. B. Porter, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; C. R. Coburn, C. W. Deans, Wm. Roberts, A. Donaldson and J. N. Pierce, Executive Committee.

THE TWELFTH MEETING of the Association was held at West Chester from the 2d to the 4th of August, 1859, and was presided over by Dr. Frank Taylor, President. An inaugural address was delivered by the President. The report of the Executive Committee was read by the chairman, C. R. Coburn. A circular letter, which had been addressed to each County Superintendent in the State, elicited the following facts: There were held, during the preceding year, institutes and associations in 49 counties, in most cases conducted by County Superintendents, and 300 township or district drills. A report on "*Teaching English Grammar*" was read by H. R. Warriner. A report on "*Punctuality and Regularity of Attendance*" was read by C. W. Deans. A report on the "*Rights of Pupils*" was read by J. N. Pierce. A report on the "*Method of Conducting Teachers' Institutes*" was read by F. A. Allen. A report on the "*Study of Natural Sciences*" was read by S. D. Ingram. A report on "*Blunders in Spelling*" was read by Wm. Roberts. A report on the "*Public School System of Philadelphia*" was read by

W. H. Batt. The committee appointed at the previous meeting to revise the Constitution, and prepare By-Laws, reported, and after some discussion and amendment the report was adopted. The changes in the Constitution were very slight. The annual fee for membership was reduced from one dollar to fifty cents; none but teachers were allowed to vote and hold office, and the time of holding the annual meeting was fixed for the first Tuesday in August. The following By-Laws were adopted:

BY-LAWS.

First. An auditing committee, consisting of three persons, shall be appointed by the President on the first day of each annual meeting, whose duty it shall be to audit the Treasurer's account and report the condition of the treasury to the Association during the Association.

Second. The President shall appoint at the opening of each meeting, a committee, consisting of four persons, who shall enroll the names and record the addresses of all the members present, and leave a copy of their report in the hands of the Secretaries to be inserted with the minutes.

Third. The Executive Committee shall have power to appoint a Local Committee, to make the necessary local arrangements for the meetings of the Association.

Fourth. The Recording secretaries shall be paid each ten dollars annually for their services.

Fifth. The President's Inaugural Address shall be delivered at 2 o'clock, P. M., on the first day of the annual session.

A lecture on "*Education for the Times*" was delivered by Joseph Parish, M. D. An address was delivered by Hon. John M. Reed of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania. At the conclusion of the meeting a splendid banquet was given to the members by the citizens of West Chester. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: C. R. Coburn, President; J. L. Richardson, Jonathan Gause, David Dennison and Theophilus Weaver, Vice-Presidents; Wm. Sterling and S. D. Ingram, Recording Secretaries; Wm. H. Johnson, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; F. A. Allen, J. P. Sherman, J. A. Thompson, J. P. Wickersham and E. A. Lawrence, Executive Committee.

THE THIRTEENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Greensburg from August 7th to 9th, 1860, and was presided over by C. R. Coburn, President. An inaugural address was delivered by the President. The report of the Executive Committee was read by F. A. Allen, chairman. At the preceding meeting a resolution had been passed ordering the publication of the proceedings of the last session of the Association. The committee reported that no action had been taken in regard to the publication. A resolution was accordingly offered and passed, ordering the preparation of a volume comprising a selection from the best papers and proceedings of all the previous meetings, with a historical account of the origin and prog-

ress of the Association. A special committee, consisting of Frank Taylor, Samuel P. Bates and William Sterling, were appointed to discharge this duty. A report was read on the "*Order of Studies*" by J. T. Valentine. A report was read on the "*Ancient Classics in Common Schools*" by J. W. Gregory. A report was read on "*Teaching English to German Children*" by P. B. Witmer. A report on "*Thoroughness in Teaching*" was read by A. Smith. Essays were read by L. C. Beach on the "*Duty of the Teacher to his Profession*," by Miss M. B. Jackson on "*A more Elevated Culture of Teachers*," and by Miss M. McCord on "*Pictures as Teachers.*" An address on the "*Chemistry of the Sunbeam*" was delivered by E. L. Yeomans, M. D. A lecture was delivered on "*Entomology*" by Rev. A. M. Stewart. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: Andrew Burtt, President; John Miller, Azariah Smith, A. T. Douthett and E. Lamborn, Vice-Presidents; Wm. Sterling and J. H. Stewart, Recording Secretaries; C. R. Coburn, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; J. P. Sherman, A. H. Sunbower, J. W. Dickerson, F. A. Allen and S. R. Thompson, Executive Committee.

THE FOURTEENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Lewisburg from August 6th to 9th, 1861, and was presided over by Azariah Smith, Vice-President. A statement was made by the State Superintendent of his intention to call a meeting of the heads of Colleges, Academies, Female Seminaries, County Superintendents and Teachers of Public High Schools, for the purpose of mutual counsel, and asked for advice as to the most favorable time for holding it. The report of the Executive Committee was read by the chairman, J. P. Sherman. The report of the Auditing Committee showed a balance in the treasury of some $300. A resolution was offered and carried that this sum, together with as much more as could be raised by voluntary contributions of teachers throughout the State, should be appropriated to the purchase of a cannon and equipments, on which should be inscribed "PRESENTED TO THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES BY THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION FOR THE PURPOSE OF PUTTING DOWN REBELLION." Dr. T. H. Burrowes was appointed to purchase and present the cannon. A report was read on "*An Educational Organ of the Association*," by W. V. Davis; also one on "*Ought Candidates for the Office of County Superintendent to be Examined?*" A report on the "*Professional Reading of Teachers*" was read by Joseph Wilson. An address was delivered on the "*Relation of the College to the Common School*" by Prof. G. R. Bliss. An address was delivered on "*A*

Finished Education" by Prof. T. F. Curtis. Essays were read on the "*Philosophy of Government*" by Dr. C. T. Bliss, and by Miss M. A. Walton on "*Nature's Teachings.*" An original poem was read by Miss Lydia M. Carner on "*Change.*" Interesting discussions were maintained on the number of hours that the pupil should be required to devote to study per day, and upon the qualifications of County Superintendents. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: Azariah Smith, President; S. D. Ingram, Isaac S. Geist, Joseph E. Jackson and David Heckendorn, Vice-Presidents; Wm. Sterling and Henry Houch, Recording Secretaries; Hiram C. Johns, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; Smedley Darlington, S. S. Jack, Geo. D. Scott, J. W. Dickerson and Thos. E. Rogers, Executive Committee.

THE FIFTEENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Reading from the 4th to the 6th of August, 1863, and was presided over, in the absence of the President, Mr. Smith, who had entered the military service, by S. D. Ingram, first Vice-President. The report of the Executive Committee for the years 1862–3 was read by the chairman, Smedley Darlington. The subject of the "*Prominent Object of Text-books*" was discussed at considerable length. The prevailing opinion was in favor of oral teaching to a much greater extent than was generally practiced. A report on the question "*How to Teach English to German Children,*" was read by Rev. J. S. Ermentrout. A report on the "*Study of History in the Common Schools*" was read by Wm. F. Wyers. The subject of "*Military Drill in Our Schools*" was proposed for discussion, and called forth the longest and most interesting debate of the session. Encouraging a military or fighting spirit was strongly deprecated. Judge Pringle Jones, a graduate from West Point Military Academy, made an able speech upon the subject, and strongly defended the propriety and the necessity of a thorough military education. A lengthy explanation was given by Dr. Burrowes, why he had not yet purchased the Teachers' Cannon, as ordered by the Association. He reported $720 subject to order. A resolution was passed ordering the purchase and presentation to be made. A beautiful poem on "*Pennsylvania, Her Past and Present,*" was read by Miss Annie F. Kent. A lecture on "*Natural Science*" was delivered by Prof. S. D. Hillman. An address was delivered by Maj. Gen. Franz Sigel. He said he had been a teacher and a school director. His heart was with the teachers. They were to make this nation truly a republic. A free nation can not exist without the free schools. He did not fear the effect of a military education. If you at the same time implant in

the hearts of the youth a chivalrous sense of honor, and regard for the rights of others, there will be no military despotism. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: Samuel D. Ingram, President; Issac S. Geist, Jacob Ulp, John B. Storm and Henry Houch, Vice-Presidents; Wm. Sterling and John S. Ermentrout, Recording Secretaries; Robert Cruikshank, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; S. S. Jack, W. W. Woodruff, J. K. Hartzler, Reuben F. Hofford and A. N. Raub, Executive Committee.

THE SIXTEENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Altoona from the 2d to the 4th of August, 1864, and was presided over by S. D. Ingram, President. An inaugural address was delivered by the President. A report on "*Illustrated Science*," prepared by F. McKee, was read by Mr. Jack. This report led to the discussion of the general subject of Object Lessons, and drew out the speaking talent of the Association. While the utility of the real object-lesson system was highly commended, the mistaken idea of making it a mere routine exercise to be learned and recited by the page from a book, was condemned. A report on "*Stages of Mental Growth*" was read by J. S. Ermentrout. A report on "*The means to induce pupils to aim at a high standard of Intellectual Culture*" was read by Col. G. F. McFarland. This report led to an interesting discussion on the subject of prizes and emulation as incentives. A letter was read from Dr. Burrowes stating that arrangements had been made to purchase the Teachers' cannon, but it was found that the government ammunition would not fit it, and hence it was not yet in position. An essay was read by Miss Fannie M. Haley on the "*Personal Habits of Teachers.*" An address was delivered on "*The Education of the Moral Nature*" by E. V. Gerhart, D. D., President of Franklin and Marshall College. An address was delivered on "*Liberal Education*" by Samuel P. Bates. An address was delivered on "*The Necessity of a True Order of Studies*" by Thomas Hill, D. D., LL. D., President of Harvard University. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: F. A. Allen, President; Samuel P. Bates, I. S. Walthom, William H. Parker and J. H. Shoemaker, Vice-Presidents; G. F. McFarland and S. Z. Sharp, Recording Secretaries; R. McDivitt, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; Wm. F. Wyers, Chas. W. Deans, C. Elliott, A. T. Douthett and A. N. Raub, Executive Committee.

CONCLUSION.

From this brief account of the Proceedings of the Association, it

will be seen that it has proved an efficient agency in improving and perfecting the organic school law of the State. At the time of its organization there was indeed a common school system; but it possessed little vitality, and was accomplishing comparatively meager results. By discussion and agitation, and by memorials addressed to the Legislature, the law itself was thoroughly revised and its powers greatly enlarged—a County Superintendency was given—a costly school architecture was prepared and issued to every district—the School Journal was made the organ of the School Department and sent at the expense of the State to each school board—a separate School Department was erected—a complete and well-conceived Normal School organization was engrafted upon the law—and the whole system was so perfected that it stands a marvel of excellence —grand in its proportions and lofty in its purposes. That these results were mainly due to the enlightened and well-directed efforts of the Association can not be doubted. Its work in securing the improvement of the organic law has been well done, and is well nigh complete.

But there is another sphere that lies open before it, in which its future efforts must be directed, demanding its best judgment and clearest foresight. The principles which underlie the practice of teaching are as yet imperfectly understood. This is the ground on which future triumphs must be won. Questions that require profound wisdom to fathom must be considered, the false must be detected and be eliminated from the true, the traditions and practices of the fathers must be questioned, and the tests of reason and reflection must be rigidly applied. In this unlimited field of investigation it must now push forward and accomplish the great work whereunto it is called.

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[The References attached to such as have been published, are to the "Penn. School Journal."]

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Stages of Mental Growth, 1864. Vol. XIII., p. 81.
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Sunny Side of Teaching, 1858. Vol. VII., p. 116.
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Uses and Abuses of Text-books, 1853. Vol. II., p. 89.
Vocal Music, 1855. Vol. III., p. 76.
Workings of Public Schools in Philadelphia, 1855. Vol. IV., p. 82.

LIST OF MEMBERS, 1864.

Bates, S. P., *Harrisburg*, Dauphin.
Beane, V. B., *Middletown*, "
Bishop, Eliza, *Harrisburg*, "
Bowman, Kate, *Lebanon*, Lebanon.
Briggs, E. S. *Pittston*, Luzerne.
Brown, C. W., 51 *John Street*, N. Y.
Burrowes, Thomas H., *Lancaster*, Lancaster.
Coburn, C. R., *Harrisburg*, Dauphin.
Coleman, Annie, *Pittston*, Luzerne.
Conrad, Thos. N., *West Grove*, Chester.
Cressman, P., *Philadelphia*, Philadelphia.
Cruikshank, Robert, *Pottstown*, Montgomery.
Darlington, Harriet B., *Ercildoun*, Chester.
Darlington, Smedley, *Ercildoun*, Chester.
Darlington, Rich'd., *Ercildoun*, Chester.
Davis, Thos. P., ——, Schuylkill.
Dickerson, Kate J., *Chester Springs*, Chester.
Earhart, H. A., *Hockerville*, Dauphin.
Eggers, E. A., *Philadelphia*, Philadelphia.
Ermentrout, John S., *Reading*, Berks.
Evans, David, *Lancaster*, Lancaster.
Fischer, W. G., *Girard College*, Philadelphia.
Freeland, A. E., *Pottsville*, Schuylkill.
Fuller, Wesley W., ——, Juniata.
Geist, I. S., *Marietta*, Lancaster.
Gleim, Maria, *Lebanon*, Lebanon.
Grider, J. M., *Mountville*, Lancaster.
Guldin, Isaac W., *Pottstown*, Montgomery.
Hallman, Benj., *Phœnixville*, Chester.
Harpel, E. N., *Cornwall*, Lebanon.
Hartzler, J. K., *Bellville*, Mifflin.
Hatton, Addie, *Middletown*, Dauphin.
Hillbush, E. R., *Mahony*, Northumberland.
Hillbush, J. R., *Mahony*, Northumberland.
Hillman, S. D., *Carlisle*, Cumberland.
Hoffman, Francis C., *New Berlin*, Union.
Hoffman, Levi J., *Geiger's Mills*, Berks.
Houck, Henry, *Lebanon*, Lebanon.
Hofford, R. F., *Lehightown*, Carbon.
Ingram, S. D., *Harrisburg*, Dauphin.
Jack, S. S., *Pleasant Unity*, Westmoreland.
Jones, M. S., *Reading*, Berks.
Kent, Annie, F., *Jennerville*, Chester.
Light, Asaph S., *Lebanon*, Lebanon.
Long, F. D., *Jersey Shore*, Lycoming.
McCord, Mary, *Lewistown*, Mifflin.
McFarland, Almira, *Reedsville*, Mifflin.
McDivitt, Robert, *Huntingdon*, Huntingdon.
Marshall, Helen R., *West Chester*, Chester.
Martin, Rachel E., *Jersey Shore*, Lycoming.
Mowry, J., *Harrisburg*, Dauphin.
Newlin, Jesse, *Port Carbon*, Schuylkill.
Nicks, H. R., *Kutztown*, Berks.
Raub, A. N., *Cressona*, Schuylkill.
Roberts, Wm., *Philadelphia*, Philadelphia.
Row, Amos, *Harrisburg*, Dauphin.
Rupp, John S., *Lebanon*, Lebanon.
Schock, George F., *Hamburg*, Berks.
Scott, George D., *Reading*, "
Shannon, Jennie, *Pittston*, Luzerne.
Shannon, Lizzie, " "
Sharpless, S., *West Chester*, Chester.
Shaw, Mary A., *Lewistown*, Mifflin.
Shelley, W. H., *York*, York.
Smith, B. J., *Pricetown*, Berks.
Stewart, John A., *Reading*, Berks.
Stewart, Mary E., *Lewistown*, Mifflin.
Stirling, Wm., *Philadelphia*, Philadelphia.
Storm, John B., *Stroudsburg*, Monroe.
Stroup, W. K., *Lewistown*, Mifflin.
Uhler, Sue A., *Lebanon*, Lebanon.
Ulp, Jacob, *Northumberland*, Northumberland.
Valentine, T. J., *Reading*, Berks.
Welliver, J. N., *Lock Haven*, Clinton.
Wells, George F., *Reading*, Berks.
Wickersham, Emerine J., *Millersville*, Lancaster.
Wickersham, J. P., *Millersville*, Lancaster.
Williamson, Amanda C., *New London*, Chester.
Woodruff, W. W., *West Chester*, Chester.
Wyers, W. F., " "

II. PENNSYLVANIA EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

PRESIDENTS OF STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

THOMAS H. BURROWES, LL D.

THOMAS HENRY BURROWES, President of the Convention in which the State Teachers' Association was formed, was born Nov. 16th, 1805, at Strasburg, Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, of highly respectable Irish parentage. His father returned to Ireland in 1810, came in 1817 to Quebec, went again to Ireland in 1822, and finally in 1825 returned to his former home in Pennsylvania. During these successive removals of the family his education was by no means neglected. At an English and classical school in Quebec, under private instructors or in private schools in Ireland, and for two years under a tutor of Trinity College, Dublin, he acquired a sound knowledge of the Latin and French languages, a considerable acquaintance with the Greek, and the rudiments of German, besides a practical training and knowledge of men and things of no less value, consequent upon a wandering life. In 1825 he commenced a course of legal study and general reading under Amos Ellmaker, Esq., of Lancaster; in 1828 entered the Yale College Law School, at the same time attending the scientific lectures of Professors Silliman and Olmsted, and of Dr. Knight, and in 1829 was admitted to the bar of Lancaster county. Becoming somewhat prominent in politics, he was elected to the State Legislature in 1831, and again in 1832, and in 1835 was appointed by Gov. Ritner to the office of Secretary of State, to which the superintendency of common schools was then *ex officio* attached. Here began his first connection with the educational interests of the State.

The Common School Law, drafted by Samuel Breck, member of the Senate from Philadelphia, had been passed in 1834 and slightly revised in 1835, but was still to be put into operation and was very incomplete. He at once examined into the condition of the law and of popular education in the State, had a revised bill prepared, which was passed in 1836, and from that time the system began in reality to be efficient. The most effective feature in this bill was one allowing each district to discontinue the school system if found unacceptable after a three years' trial. This obtained for the system a fair trial at the discretion of the people, and by the year 1849, under its operation, all opposition had ceased and the system was carried into general and permanent operation without dissent from any quarter.

During the years 1837 and 1838 Mr. Burrowes visited every county in the State, meeting and consulting with the teachers and school directors, and acquiring a store of information, obtainable in no other way, for the guidance of his official action. During his first three years at the head of the school department, many additions to the working machinery were made, and several suggestions for improvement offered in his Reports, most of the latter of which

have since been adopted. Among these were a county supervision of schools and a State Normal School system. In 1837 he published and circulated in all the districts of the State a plan and drawing for the improvement of existing school-houses and for more convenient furniture, which was at once largely adopted. This was one of the earliest attempts of the kind in the Union.

A change of administration occurring, the charge of the public schools passed early in 1839 into other hands, and Mr. Burrowes retired to his farm near Lancaster and seven years afterwards resumed the practice of law. As school director he had here great influence in elevating and perfecting the public schools of the town, and he also published a series of elaborate newspaper articles upon the school system, which aided in uniting and directing public sentiment throughout the State in favor of school improvement. At an Educational Convention held at Harrisburg in 1850 a detailed report was presented by him upon school superintendence. He was first President of the Lancaster County Teachers' Association, formed in 1851. In 1852 he established the "*Pennsylvania School Journal*," of which he has ever since been editor and proprietor. In the same year he presided over the Convention for the formation of the State Teachers' Association, all of whose meetings, but one, he has attended and reported, taking an active part in its work and deliberations. In January, 1853, he introduced the first Teachers' Institute in Eastern Pennsylvania, and from this time to 1856 he prepared and delivered numerous essays upon topics of educational interest, many of which were published. In 1854 he prepared the descriptive matter for the "*Pennsylvania School Architecture.*" In 1857 he wrote the present Normal School Law of the State, having seen the unsurmountable opposition of the Legislature to the establishment of Normal Schools wholly at the State expense and to be controlled by State authority, and after having for years nourished the idea of Normal Schools independent of State aid and control, in his own vicinity.

In 1860 Mr. Burrowes again took charge of the common schools of the State as State Superintendent, the office having been made independent of the State Secretaryship in 1858, and during a term of three years from that date he infused much vigor into the administration. In 1864 he was appointed to establish schools for the education and maintenance of the destitute orphans of the soldiers of the State, and a fund, to be expended in 1865, of $125,000 was placed at his disposal. He is now (1865) engaged in this work and has already over 1,000 orphans in the schools.*

JOHN HORACE BROWN, A. M.

JOHN HORACE BROWN, elected the first President of the State Teachers' Association at its organization in 1852, was born in Cayuga county, New York, on the 20th of November, 1802. The limited opportunities of even an elementary education which that new settlement afforded, as well as those which his father's removal to Cumberland county, New Jersey, in 1812, secured for him, were diligently improved, and at the age of sixteen he commenced his career as a schoolmaster, in a primary school in the neighborhood, discharging its duties, during the summer, and attending school himself in the winter. In 1822 he removed to Philadelphia, and with the interval of a few years in teaching a pri-

* For a fuller sketch of Dr. Burrowes' life, see Barnard's American Journal of Education, Vol. VI., pp. 107–555.

vate institution at Mount Joy and at Gettysburg, spent the rest of his days in the service of the public schools of that city until his death, which occurred on the 6th of March, 1858. He was for ten years before his death Principal of Zane Street Grammar School. He was one of the founders of the "Association of Teachers of Public Schools in Philadelphia" in 1843, and of the "State Teachers' Association" in 1852. He received the honorary degree of Master of Arts from the Faculty of Gettysburg College.

JAMES THOMPSON.

JAMES THOMPSON, the second President of the Association, was born at Ovid, Seneca county, N. Y., on the 3d of February, 1814. Obtaining his preparatory training in the Academy at Ovid, he entered Hobart College, at Geneva, where he spent two years, passing through the Sophomore and Junior classes, and from thence went to Union College at Schenectady, where he graduated in 1834. Before entering college he taught a private school at Vienna for one year, and immediately on graduation was called by his former preceptor in the Academy at Ovid, to assist him in the Academy at Ithaca, Tompkins county, N. Y., which he did for two years. From Sep., 1836, to June, 1837, he was engaged as assistant engineer on the Central Railroad in Georgia, and on his return to Ithaca, resumed the study of law, at the same time giving lectures in the Academy, of which he soon afterwards became Principal.

While in this position Mr. Thompson became deeply interested in the improvement of common schools, and in 1841 held the office of School Inspector, and in 1843 assisted Mr. J. S. Denman, the first County Superintendent of Tompkins county, in conducting the first County Teachers' Institute ever held in that section of the State. In the autumn of 1846 he accepted the professorship of language in "Pennsylvania Western University," at Pittsburg, where he continued for a year and more until the destruction of its buildings by fire, when he opened a private seminary for girls, which was highly popular. In 1847 was gathered together within the walls of the University the first Association of Teachers ever held in Alleghany county, which finally became organized in 1851 as a "Teachers' Institute," and was instrumental, through Prof. Thompson, in calling the convention at Harrisburg in 1852, which established the State Association, of which he was made President in 1853.

In the spring of 1858 Prof. Thompson left Pittsburg, and after spending a year at Wilmington, Del., he removed to New Haven, Conn., where he was engaged in teaching a female seminary, and attending upon a class in the Sanscrit, under the instruction of Prof. Whitney of Yale College. In the autumn of 1860 he was chosen Principal of the State Normal School of the Twelfth District of Pennsylvania, located at Edinboro', Erie county, where he labored indefatigably for three years to organize and build up that institution. In 1863 he was associated with Hon. T. H. Burrowes in organizing and putting in operation a system of education in Pennsylvania for orphan children of deceased soldiers and sailors.

WILLIAM VANLEAR DAVIS.

WILLIAM VANLEAR DAVIS, third President of the State Teachers Association, was born Oct. 9th, 1813, near Chambersburg, Pa. Early evincing a fondness for books, his father determined to afford him the means of a liberal education. He accordingly entered the Chambersburg Academy, where, for three years, he enjoyed the instruction of Dr. Crawford, afterwards celebrated as Principal of

ress of the Association. A special committee, consisting of Frank Taylor, Samuel P. Bates and William Sterling, were appointed to discharge this duty. A report was read on the "*Order of Studies*" by J. T. Valentine. A report was read on the "*Ancient Classics in Common Schools*" by J. W. Gregory. A report was read on "*Teaching English to German Children*" by P. B. Witmer. A report on "*Thoroughness in Teaching*" was read by A. Smith. Essays were read by L. C. Beach on the "*Duty of the Teacher to his Profession*," by Miss M. B. Jackson on "*A more Elevated Culture of Teachers*," and by Miss M. McCord on "*Pictures as Teachers.*" An address on the "*Chemistry of the Sunbeam*" was delivered by E. L. Yeomans, M. D. A lecture was delivered on "*Entomology*" by Rev. A. M. Stewart. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: Andrew Burtt, President; John Miller, Azariah Smith, A. T. Douthett and E. Lamborn, Vice-Presidents; Wm. Sterling and J. H. Stewart, Recording Secretaries; C. R. Coburn, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; J. P. Sherman, A. H. Sunbower, J. W. Dickerson, F. A. Allen and S. R. Thompson, Executive Committee.

THE FOURTEENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Lewisburg from August 6th to 9th, 1861, and was presided over by Azariah Smith, Vice-President. A statement was made by the State Superintendent of his intention to call a meeting of the heads of Colleges, Academies, Female Seminaries, County Superintendents and Teachers of Public High Schools, for the purpose of mutual counsel, and asked for advice as to the most favorable time for holding it. The report of the Executive Committee was read by the chairman, J. P. Sherman. The report of the Auditing Committee showed a balance in the treasury of some $300. A resolution was offered and carried that this sum, together with as much more as could be raised by voluntary contributions of teachers throughout the State, should be appropriated to the purchase of a cannon and equipments, on which should be inscribed "PRESENTED TO THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES BY THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION FOR THE PURPOSE OF PUTTING DOWN REBELLION." Dr. T. H. Burrowes was appointed to purchase and present the cannon. A report was read on "*An Educational Organ of the Association*," by W. V. Davis; also one on "*Ought Candidates for the Office of County Superintendent to be Examined?*" A report on the "*Professional Reading of Teachers*" was read by Joseph Wilson. An address was delivered on the "*Relation of the College to the Common School*" by Prof. G. R. Bliss. An address was delivered on "*A*

Finished Education" by Prof. T. F. Curtis. Essays were read on the "*Philosophy of Government*" by Dr. C. T. Bliss, and by Miss M. A. Walton on "*Nature's Teachings.*" An original poem was read by Miss Lydia M. Carner on "*Change.*" Interesting discussions were maintained on the number of hours that the pupil should be required to devote to study per day, and upon the qualifications of County Superintendents. The following persons were elected officers for the ensuing year: Azariah Smith, President; S. D. Ingram, Isaac S. Geist, Joseph E. Jackson and David Heckendorn, Vice-Presidents; Wm. Sterling and Henry Houch, Recording Secretaries; Hiram C. Johns, Corresponding Secretary; Amos Row, Treasurer; Smedley Darlington, S. S. Jack, Geo. D. Scott, J. W. Dickerson and Thos. E. Rogers, Executive Committee.

THE FIFTEENTH MEETING of the Association was held at Reading from the 4th to the 6th of August, 1863, and was presided over, in the absence of the President, Mr. Smith, who had entered the military service, by S. D. Ingram, first Vice-President. The report of the Executive Committee for the years 1862–3 was read by the chairman, Smedley Darlington. The subject of the "*Prominent Object of Text-books*" was discussed at considerable length. The prevailing opinion was in favor of oral teaching to a much greater extent than was generally practiced. A report on the question "*How to Teach English to German Children,*" was read by Rev. J. S. Ermentrout. A report on the "*Study of History in the Common Schools*" was read by Wm. F. Wyers. The subject of "*Military Drill in Our Schools*" was proposed for discussion, and called forth the longest and most interesting debate of the session. Encouraging a military or fighting spirit was strongly deprecated. Judge Pringle Jones, a graduate from West Point Military Academy, made an able speech upon the subject, and strongly defended the propriety and the necessity of a thorough military education. A lengthy explanation was given by Dr. Burrowes, why he had not yet purchased the Teachers' Cannon, as ordered by the Association. He reported $720 subject to order. A resolution was passed ordering the purchase and presentation to be made. A beautiful poem on "*Pennsylvania, Her Past and Present,*" was read by Miss Annie F. Kent. A lecture on "*Natural Science*" was delivered by Prof. S. D. Hillman. An address was delivered by Maj. Gen. Franz Sigel. He said he had been a teacher and a school director. His heart was with the teachers. They were to make this nation truly a republic. A free nation can not exist without the free schools. He did not fear the effect of a military education. If you at the same time implant in

the Preparatory Department of the Pennsylvania University. In 1831 he entered the Sophomore class of Washington College, Pa. At the end of two years he left this institution and entered Kenyon College, Ohio. Having finished his collegiate course with much honor, he was recalled to his native place to take charge, as Principal, of the Academy, which situation he filled for a period of fifteen years with marked ability and efficiency. In 1849 he entered upon a course of study preparatory to the practice of law, but circumstances interfering with the execution of his design, he accepted in August, 1853, a situation offered him in the High School at Lancaster, Pa. During his principalship this institution attained great popularity. In 1860 he was induced to resign this position and to take charge of a boarding school at Jersey Shore, Pa., whence he returned in the autumn of 1861 to Chambersburg. Here he remained until September, 1863, when, at the solicitation of his numerous friends, he returned to Lancaster city, and became Principal of the Lancaster Academy.

JAMES PYLE WICKERSHAM, A. M.

JAMES PYLE WICKERSHAM was born in Newlin township, Chester county, Pa., March 5th, 1825. In a well-regulated industrious home, in attendance on a common elementary school in winter, and in enough of good farm work in summer, he grew up till he was sixteen years old, when, with his father's consent, he undertook to achieve for himself something better in the way of intellectual culture by attending an academy, studying subjects in language and mathematics, which supplied mental discipline and food for afterthought, and by teaching schools at intervals to earn the means of continuing those studies. In the spring of 1845, he had won a position as Principal of the Academy at Marietta in Lancaster county, and established a home of his own, over which he had installed as wife Miss Emmarine Taylor, the daughter of Dr. Taylor of Chester. Here he not only achieved a reputation for his institution, but took such part in the educational movements of his county and the State, that when the system of county superintendence was established in 1854, he was invited to fill the post, with a salary equal to that paid any State officer. He administered this office with such intelligence and efficiency as to demonstrate its importance to the successful working of the school system. Out of his judicious labors as Superintendent, and especially out of one of his County Institutes, held long enough to show that professional knowledge and skill could be systematically imparted to young and inexperienced teachers, originated, and under his judicious management was developed the State Normal School at Millersville—a monument of wise and patient labor of which any educator in the land might be proud. In 1852 he was one of the founders of the State Association, and the first Chairman of its Executive Committee, and President in 1856. As embodying the fruits of his study and experience in the educational field, J. B. Lippincott & Co. published, in 1864, a volume entitled, "*School Economy*," which is to be followed by another on "*Methods of Instruction*," and a third on "*Methods of Culture*." These treatises will prove valuable contributions to our educational literature. In the summer of 1863 Mr. Wickersham, on the urgent appeal of Governor Curtin for volunteers, raised a full regiment from the teachers of Lancaster county, which he commanded for three months. At the annual meeting in August, 1865, Mr. Wickersham was elected President of the National Teachers' Association.


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In this work his labors were abundant in writing and lecturing, in conducting Teachers' Institutes and in more direct effort in Normal Schools. At the opening of the Lancaster County Normal School, in Nov., 1855, he became its Principal, but in 1857 he purchased the property of the University of Northern Pennsylvania, and reopened the school with upwards of 120 teachers in attendance. The buildings were unfortunately destroyed by fire during the same month. By the solicitation of friends of education and teachers he established temporarily, at Montrose, Pa., "The Susquehanna County Normal School," and about 300 students, most of them teachers, annually enjoyed its privileges and advantages until Sep., 1859. In 1854 he became County Superintendent of Wayne county, Pa., and in 1857 he was elected President of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association. Returning in 1859 to his native State, chiefly on account of the greater facilities afforded in the city of New York for pursuing his favorite studies, he became Principal of one of the Public Schools of that city, where he remained until the beginning of 1864, when he resigned. He has since resided at Greenfield, Ulster county, taking part in the instruction of Institutes, so far as the state of his health will admit.

FRANKLIN TAYLOR, M. D.

FRANKLIN TAYLOR, seventh President of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association, was born at Kennett, Chester county, Penn., August 10th, 1822. After a course of preparatory study at academies at Wilmington, Del., Meridan, N. H., and Lenox, Mass., he studied for a time in Harvard University, and in 1844 visited Europe, spending two years at the Heidelberg University and attending a course of medical lectures at Paris. After his return, he completed his medical studies in Philadelphia and there received the degree of M. D. in 1848. In August, 1848, he was delegate to the National Free Soil Convention at Buffalo, of which body he was also acting Secretary. Through interest in the revolutionary movements in Europe, he again traveled through Germany, Austria, Italy, and Greece, in 1849, and visited Kossuth and his co-patriots at Kutaya in Asia Minor. Returning to America in 1850, he delivered a series of lectures in different cities upon European politics, and mainly through his efforts to induce the Government to intercede in behalf of the Hungarian and Polish exiles, a national vessel was commissioned by Congress to receive Kossuth and his companions when released and to convey them to this country. Deeply interested in the subject of education and in order to supply a most prominent want of the district-schools, he opened in 1852 a Normal School at Kennett Square, which was soon filled with pupils. He was elected County Superintendent in 1857, and shortly after opened a Normal School at West Chester, in connection with F. A. Allen and Dr. E. Harvey, but was soon compelled by the duties of his office to resign his interest in it. His three years of official service were distinguished by the number and interest of the Teachers Institutes and by his success in arousing popular interest and effort. In 1858 he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association. His lectures upon educational topics in various parts of the State have been numerous.

WILLIAM ROBERTS.

WILLIAM ROBERTS, fifth President of the Association, was born in New Jersey, but removed while a youth to Philadelphia, and in the year 1823 commenced his career as a teacher for one year in the Children's Asylum, then under the charge of the Guardians of the Poor, and for four years in a private boys' school. After a brief experience in a public office he resumed his vocation as a teacher, commencing with a "School for Young Ladies," which he conducted with success for five years. In April, 1836, he took charge of the Moyamensing, since called the Ringgold School, in the city of Philadelphia, and remained in connection with it for a period of twenty-five years. When he first commenced his duties in this school the Lancasterian or monitorial system was in use, and he spent fifteen days in the Model School in Chester Street, for the purpose of obtaining a knowledge of its practical operations. For several months he taught by this inefficient method. His school increasing to more than 200 pupils, he was allowed the next year the services of a male assistant, and in the succeeding year three lady assistants. He was an active member, and for several years an officer, of the "City Teachers' Association," and one of the first Vice-Presidents, and was among the originators of the State Teachers' Association, of which he was elected President in 1856. He was also one of the original members of the "National Teachers' Association," of which he has been an active member and a Vice-President. Mr. Roberts is the author of a "*History of the United States*" for the use of Schools, which has been adopted as the text-book for the Public Schools of Philadelphia and elsewhere.

JOHN FAIR STODDARD.

JOHN F. STODDARD, the sixth President of the State Teachers' Association, was born in Greenfield, Ulster county, New York, on the 30th of July, 1825. His rudimentary education was acquired at the district school in his native town, and his more advanced course at academies in Duchess and Orange counties, N. Y. He became, at the of sixteen, teacher of a district school, and it was in the experience of two years in this vocation that he discovered the motives and the ambition which have governed his subsequent course. The mathematical character of his own processes of thought naturally led him to adopt logical and consistent methods of instruction, and induced the preparation of his "Intellectual Arithmetic," which he employed for two years in manuscript. He graduated at the New York State Normal School at Albany in 1847, having made mathematics and kindred sciences his principal study. On leaving the Normal School he took charge of the "Liberty Normal Institute," which soon became marked for its thoroughness of instruction, and which was appointed by the Regents of the University one of the Academies of the State for the Education of Teachers. The commendations bestowed upon his manuscript text-book by Prof. D. P. Page of the New York State Normal School led to its publication and to further efforts at authorship. The issue of this work was soon followed by the succeeding numbers of his "Normal Series of Mathematics," and subsequently by the Series of Algebraic Works of Stoddard and Henkle as joint authors. In 1853 Mr. Stoddard received the degree of A. M. from the New York University. In Nov., 1851, he was elected President of the University of Northern Pennsylvania, where he established a Normal School Department, and devoted his efforts to the education of teachers, which now became the chief object of his efforts.

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* Pa. School Journal.

that he could be most useful as a teacher, and immediately set about preparing himself for that work, continuing still to labor at his trade. In 1843 he was chosen Principal of the Male Department of the Birmingham Public Schools, where he continued seven years. He was then engaged as Principal of the Minersville Schools for one year, when he was appointed to the superintendency of the Fifth Ward Public Schools of Pittsburgh, which office he continued to fill for several years with great success. In 1858 Mr. Burtt received the degree of A. M. from Jefferson College, and about the same time prepared and published a "*Grammar of the English Language*," which is used almost exclusively as a text-book in the Public Schools of Alleghany County. In connection with his school he has undertaken the training of a large class of young ladies for the business of teaching, and for several years past has conducted Normal Classes during evening hours, and has always been active in assisting to organize and sustain Teachers' Associations in and about Pittsburg.

AZARIAH SMITH.

AZARIAH SMITH, tenth President of the Association, was born Jan. 12th, 1833, in Middlefield, Mass. As is true with most farmers' boys of that section, attendance at the common district school alternated with labor upon the farm, until his thirteenth year. During the three years following he continued to work upon the farm, but spent a portion of each year in study at the Williston Seminary, East Hampton, Mass., and at Manlius Academy, Onondaga county, N. Y. To these opportunities should be added the tuition of an elder brother in 1845–50, and the benefit of a winter's school-teaching in his native district in 1850–51. In 1851 Mr. Smith entered the Freshman class of the New York Central College, where he graduated in 1855, but remained as instructor of Greek two years longer. In Nov., 1857, he removed to Kishacoquillas Seminary, Mifflin county, Pa., where he taught during the succeeding year. From August, 1859, to May, 1863, he held the office of County Superintendent of Mifflin county. Being a ready and eloquent speaker, and an apt teacher, he elevated and improved the standard of teachers' qualifications, and, by lectures and addresses delivered in every part of the county and by able articles in the local papers, gave new life and energy to the educational sentiment of the people. In August, 1860, he was elected one of the Vice-Presidents of the State Association, and at the meeting in the August following, held at Lewisburg, he presided, in the absence of the President, and was elected President for the ensuing year. In June, 1863, Mr. Smith accepted a responsible position in the Office of the Superintendent of the United States Military Telegraph, for the Department of the Cumberland.

SAMUEL D. INGRAM.

SAMUEL DELAPLAIN INGRAM, the eleventh President of the Association, was born in Kennett township, Chester county, Pa., on the 9th of November, 1817. He was left an orphan while yet young, but under the care of his uncle, Jonathan Gause, who was an experienced teacher, Principal of West Chester Academy and afterwards at the head of a boarding-school at West Bradford, on the Brandywine, he acquired a substantial English education. In 1836, immediately after the adoption of the present school law of Pennsylvania, he engaged in teaching a term of eight months in Sadsbury township, Chester county. The experience of these eight months was invaluable. Having been elected Principal of the Male Grammar School of the North Ward, Harrisburg, he entered



on the duties of this position in June, 1837, which he held for nine years, giving general satisfaction, when, at the solicitation of the Directors, he took charge of the Female Grammar School of the same ward. This situation he held until the adoption of the County Superintendency in 1854, when he was elected Superintendent of Dauphin county, which office he held for several years. Having been educated among the Friends, it was not until 1855 that he connected himself with the Presbyterian Church of Harrisburg. He was present at the organization of the State Teachers' Association of Pennsylvania, and has always taken an active part in educational movements. He was elected President of the Association at Reading in 1863, and presided at Altoona.

FORDYCE A. ALLEN.

FORDYCE A. ALLEN, twelfth President of the Association, was born in Cummington, Hampshire county, Mass., on the 10th of July, 1820. After such preparation as could be gained during successive removals of the family to Tioga county, Pa., afterwards to Ohio, then again to his native town in Massachusetts, and finally to Chautauqua county, N. Y., his first attempt at teaching was made in the winter of 1839, in a neighboring county of Pennsylvania. Subsequently he taught for five years with success in Chautauqua county, N. Y., and by giving instruction in winter secured funds sufficient to maintain himself at school the remainder of the year. In this way he pursued his studies at an academy in Pennsylvania, and at the Alexander Classical School in New York, for a period of four years. In 1845 he entered upon the career in which he has since won a well-deserved distinction, of conducting Teachers' Institutes, having in that year assisted Mr. D. P. Page in giving instruction to a body of teachers in Chautauqua county, and for each succeeding year for twenty years it has been his privilege to conduct large institutes in New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Ohio, Maryland and Wisconsin—in the latter State in coöperation with Hon. Henry Barnard, then Chancellor of the State University. In 1854 Mr. Allen was elected the first County Superintendent of McKean county, having previously been engaged in teaching an Academy at Smethport, the county seat, and continued, during the three years, to discharge efficiently and successfully the duties of this office. He also edited during this period a county paper, "*The McKean Citizen.*" At the expiration of his term of office, in 1857, he was for some time engaged in assisting the State Superintendent, Mr. Hickock, in holding Teacher's Institutes in several counties throughout the State. In 1858 Mr. Allen removed to West Chester, Pa., where he became Principal of the Chester County Normal School, which he conducted for six years with such success that, in 1864, he was unanimously called to be Principal of the State Normal School at Mansfield, Tioga county, Pa. In this new and responsible position he has achieved great success, having brought up the attendance to two hundred and fifty pupils.

Mr. Allen has found time in the midst of his other duties to prepare a "*Primary Geography,*" and subsequently, in conjunction with Mr. Shaw, a "*Comprehensive Geography,*" as the second volume of a series. Mr. Allen has been an active member of the State Association, serving as a member and chairman of the Executive Committee, and in 1864 was elected President.

SAMUEL PENNIMAN BATES, LL. D.

SAMUEL P. BATES, was born in Mendon, Mass., on the 29th of January, 1827, The rudiments of his education were obtained at a common school in a rural district. At the age of sixteen he commenced teaching a common school in Milford, and was continued in the same school for five successive seasons at regularly increasing pay. His success led him to commence the study of the ancient languages, with the design of pursuing a course of liberal culture. He pursued his preparatory studies at the Worcester Academy, under that profound scholar and excellent teacher, Nelson Wheeler. In the summer of 1847, he entered Brown University, and graduated in 1851. He ranked first in his class in mathematics. For nearly a year after graduating he pursued a course of English and classical literature, a period which he regards as more pleasantly and profitably spent than any other portion of his educational life. In the summer of 1852 he was tutor in the family of Edgar Huidekoper, of Meadville, Pa. At the end of a year he accepted the Principalship of the Meadville Academy, which, under his judicious management, became one of the most flourishing institutions in Western Pennsylvania. Here he organized, in 1853, a teachers' class, before which he delivered a course of lectures on the Theory and Practice of Teaching, which course was continued until 1857, and of the two or three hundred pupils who were annually in attendance the greater portion became teachers.

In 1857 Mr. Bates was chosen Superintendent for Crawford county, one of the largest and most influential counties in the State. Much antagonism during the previous three years had been manifested to the office. But his labors were successful in quieting opposition and in exciting an ardent enthusiasm in its favor. By a thorough examination of teachers, a system of school visitation, and a practical course of instruction in the Teachers' Institutes, he infused a new life and animation into the three or four hundred schools which came under his charge, and by his labors in institutes in neighboring counties, assisted materially in establishing the popularity and usefulness of these meetings. These lectures were published in 1860 in a volume entitled "*Institute Lectures*," by the Messrs. Barnes & Burr, as one of the volumes of their Teachers' Library, and was followed in 1862 by a volume entitled "*Method of Teachers' Institutes and the Theory of Intellectual Education.*"

In 1858 was organized the Western Pennsylvania Teachers' Association, and at the first meeting, at Pittsburg, Mr. Bates delivered his lecture on the "*Dignity of the Teachers' Profession*," and was elected its first President. In March, 1860, he delivered, by request, before the Crawford County Institute, "*A Discourse Commemorative of the Life and Character of John Barker, D. D., President of Alleghany College*," which was published in pamphlet form.

At the triennial election of County Superintendents in May, 1860, Mr. Bates was reëlected for a second term, but accepted instead the office of Deputy State Superintendent, which, under his administration of its duties, has become the main reliance of the department for acting directly on the teachers of the public schools, and for becoming acquainted with the condition of the academies and colleges of the Commonwealth. The degree of LL. D. was conferred by Westminster College in 1865, and in the same year he was elected President of the State Teachers' Association.

PHILADELPHIA ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS.

EARLIER SOCIETIES IN PHILADELPHIA.

In connection with an account of the Philadelphia Association, it may be of interest to give a brief history of other Philadelphia societies for educational and kindred purposes. The first school, under the charge of Enoch Flower, was opened early in 1683 and but little more than a year after the settlement of the colony. In 1689 the Society of Friends united in the establishment of what was for sixty years the only public (*i. e.*, free) and the best school in the province. This, the "*Friends' Public School*," was incorporated in 1697 upon the petition of Samuel Carpenter, Edward Shippen, Anthony Morris, James Fox, David Lloyd, William Southby, and John Jones—a corporation that still has charge of the Friends' School on Fourth Street, and of ten or twelve other schools in and near the city. In 1749, by the suggestion and efforts and under the direction of Benjamin Franklin, an Association was formed, entitled the "*Trustees of the Academy and Charity School of the Province of Pennsylvania*,"* by whom a school of high grade was opened in 1750 and a charter obtained in 1753. From this school arose the present University of Pennsylvania, in the organization of which, the original distinctive features of the College, Academy, and Charity Schools, are still maintained.

In 1728, Franklin organized the club called the "*Junto*," by whom also the "*Library Company of Philadelphia*" was started in 1731. In 1743, as a result of Dr. Franklin's circular, "*Proposals for promoting Useful Knowledge in the British Plantations of America*," the American Philosophical Society was formed, of which Thomas Hopkinson was President, and Benjamin Franklin, Secretary.†

* The original Trustees were James Logan, Thomas Lawrence, William Allen, John Inglis, Tench Francis, William Masters, Lloyd Zachary, Samuel M'Call, Jr., Joseph Turner, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Leech, William Shippen, Robert Strettell, Philip Syng, Charles Willing, Phineas Bond, Richard Peters, Abraham Taylor, Thomas Bond, Thomas Hopkinson, William Plumstead, Joshua Maddox, Thomas White, and William Coleman.

† The other members were Dr. Thomas Bond, John Bartram, Thomas Godfrey, Samuel Rhoads, William Parsons, Dr. Phineas Bond, and William Coleman. Six of the members were also members of the "Junto."

In 1750, another "*Junto*" appeared, which in 1768 was organized as the "*American Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting Useful Knowledge*," with Benjamin Franklin as President. The two Societies were, in 1768, united into one, the present "*American Philosophical Society for promoting Useful Knowledge*," and Benjamin Franklin was elected the first President.

In 1796 an Association of ladies was formed, chiefly through the exertions of Misses Ann Parrish and Catherine W. Morris, for the purpose of educating girls without charge. A similar Society for the instruction of boys was originated in 1799 by William Neckervis, Philip Garrett, Joseph Briggs, and others, which in 1801 was incorporated under the title of the "*Philadelphia Society for the Establishment and Support of Charity Schools.*" For many years the schools under the charge of this Society were almost the only ones where education was given gratuitously. In 1807 another Society, the "*Philadelphia Associate of Friends for the Instruction of Poor Children*," was formed through the agency of Thomas Scattergood and others. These Societies are still in operation.

The first attempt of the State to provide a general system of education was by the Act of April, 1809, providing "for the education of the poor, gratis." This law was amended in 1812 but was so defective, partial, and oppressive in its provisions that it remained almost entirely inoperative. In consequence of the distress prevalent among the poor of the city in the winter of 1816–'17, the "*Society for the Promotion of Public Economy*" was established and committees were appointed to report upon various subjects, among which was that of public schools. This committee was composed of Roberts Vaux, Chairman; Jonah Thompson, Ebenezer Ferguson, John Claxton, John Robbins, Joseph M. Paul, Samuel B. Morris, William Fry, Rev. P. F. Mayer, Joseph Rotch, Thomas F. Learning, and Joseph R. Paxson. Their report, through the continued efforts of the committee, effected the passage of the Act of March, 1818, "to provide for the education of children at public expense in the city and county of Philadelphia," which, with some modifications, has continued in force till the present day. In March, 1824, a law was passed "for a general system of education," which provided for the election of "schoolmen" in every township, who should superintend the education of the poor children within their townships and "cause them to be instructed and treated as other children are treated." This law was repealed in 1826.

In February, 1824, as the result of efforts that had been begun in 1822, the "*Franklin Institute*" was formed "for the purpose of

promoting the mechanic arts and of improving the condition, character, and prospects of the industrious class of society by whom they are exercised." Lectures were immediately commenced, schools for drawing and mathematics opened, in 1826 the publication of the "*Franklin Journal*" was entered upon, and in September of the same year a High School was opened, which was maintained for over ten years with great efficiency under the able direction of William R. Johnson. The Franklin Institute is still in active and useful operation.

In 1827 the "*Society for the Promotion of Public Schools in Pennsylvania*" was formed, with Roberts Vaux as President, and among the officers were Matthew Carey, Walter R. Johnson, Gerald Ralston, John Sergeant, John Wurts, and other distinguished men of Philadelphia. This Society published several reports upon the subject of common schools, in 1830 memorialized the Legislature and urged the establishment of a system of primary and common schools and teachers' seminaries, republished for circulation the school report of New York for 1830 and other documents, and also attempted to procure a collection of school-books for comparison and selection. Its last meeting was held in Dec., 1831. In April of the same year, an Act had been passed establishing a school fund, but no general school law was enacted until 1834, and then mainly through the efforts of Samuel Breck, a member of the State Senate from Philadelphia.

PHILADELPHIA ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS.

An Association of Teachers in Philadelphia existed in 1812 and in 1820, but we learn from one who taught there with great success, that "its objects were more for convivial and financial purposes—the fixing of rates of tuition and the enjoyment of a supper—than for professional improvement, although many of its members were sadly in need of such improvement, having, as it were, *fallen* into their position of schoolmasters from inability to start in any other respectable occupation. 'Lang Syne' does not exaggerate the deficiences of even the best schools."*

By invitation of William Russell and A. Bronson Alcott, then associate teachers of the Germantown Academy, the most prominent teachers in Philadelphia met on the 11th and 15th of Feb., 1831, for the purpose of forming an Association and establishing a Journal devoted to the general interests of education. Among those present were Rev. Dr. M. M. Carll, Dr. J. M. Keagy, Dr. Brewer, Walter R.

* See Schools as they Were in Philadelphia, in Barnard's Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. XIII., p. 748.

Johnson, A. Bolmar, Smith, and Lincoln. A more public meeting was held on the 17th of February in the hall of the Franklin Institute, at which a constitution, drawn up by Mr. Russell, was proposed and discussed, and on the following evening adopted. On the 5th of March the following officers were elected, the principal teachers of the city being in attendance:—

Corresponding Secretary.—Rev. Dr. M. M. Carll.
Recording Secretary.—W. R. Johnson.
Board of Directors.—Dr. J. M. Keagy, Dr. Brewer, William Russell, A. B. Alcott, A. Bolmar, Mr. Leavenworth, and Mr. Pierce.
Publishing Committee.—Messrs. Carll, Keagy, Russell, Alcott, and Johnson.
Finance Committee.—Messrs. Brewer, Johnson, and Leavenworth.

A Board of Lecturers was also appointed, with designated subjects. The members of the Board of Directors were severally to preside in turn as Chairmen of the meetings.

Lectures were afterwards delivered by Mr. Alcott, upon the "*Principles of Early Education*;" and by Mr. Russell, on "*Methods of Teaching.*" In May a proposition from William C. Woodbridge to unite the proposed Journal with the "Annals of Education" was discussed and declined. In November its publication was finally determined upon, under the title of the "*Journal of Instruction of the Philadelphia Association of Teachers*," with Mr. Russell as responsible editor. It was to be a semi-monthly sheet of twelve pages, in fine type. The first number appeared on the 1st of January, 1832, containing papers by Russell, Alcott, Carll, Keagy, and Johnson, including an article upon the objects of a Journal of Instruction, and a review of Gallaudet's Book on the Soul. Three additional numbers followed, containing papers on "*Maternal Influence*," "*Aristotle as an Educator*," "*Neglect of Infancy*," &c. With the failure of the publisher in March, the publication was suspended, and of the meetings or action of the Association we have no further information.

In 1835 there existed a "*Philadelphia Lyceum of Teachers*," by whom a State Educational Convention was called, which met at Winchester, Aug. 18th, 1835. The Philadelphia Lyceum was represented by Dr. J. M. Keagy, N. Dodge, Josiah Holbrook, J. H. Brown, Victor Value, and John Simmons. The "*Pennsylvania Association of Monitorial Teachers*" were also represented by Dr. Wright, Thomas Eastman, and J. M. Coleman. The "*Bucks County Education Society*" and the "*York Association of Teachers*" had also their delegates in the Convention. Nothing more is known of these Associations. A "State Lyceum" was organized by the Convention, of which Jonathan Roberts, of Montgomery county,

was elected President; and Dr. J. M. Keagy, John Beck, Jacob Weaver, J. H. Gordon, and Jonathan Gause, Vice-Presidents. The principal subject of discussion was the importance of the study of Natural History and of Natural Science generally in schools. A similar meeting was held on the 24th of March following at Harrisburg, during the session of the Legislature, Joseph Lawrence presiding. Probably nothing more was effected by this Society.

On the 31st of August, 1850, a meeting of the male Principals of the Public Grammar Schools was held in the Zane Street Grammar School, at which, after due consideration, a committee was appointed to prepare the plan of a permanent organization. On the 7th of September, this committee reported to an adjourned meeting the draft of a constitution for the "Philadelphia Association of the Principals of Public Schools," which was adopted, and the Association was organized by the election of J. H. Brown, *President;* J. C. Fisher, *Corresponding Secretary;* J. Joyce, *Recording Secretary;* and A. B. Jones, *Treasurer.* For several years, monthly meetings were held, with a good attendance, and regular essays and discussions on topics of professional and school interest. During the distracting period of the war, the meetings became irregular, and the attendance thin; but since the annual meeting in September, 1865, "a new interest has been awakened, and a determination exhibited by several of its sixty-five active members, comprising nearly all the male teachers of the Public Schools, to make this Association one of the leading organizations of its kind in the country." It meets on the first Saturday of each month, in the Girls' High and Normal School Building. Each teacher pays one dollar on signing the constitution, and an annual fee of fifty cents. The officers elected in September, 1865, are W. H. Hunter, *Pres.;* Geo. W. Fetter, *Vice-Pres.;* Geo. H. Stout, *Cor. Sec.;* O. K. Sabold, *Rec. Sec.;* and M. Watson, *Treas.*

VI. NORMAL SCHOOLS

AND

TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.

BY CALVIN E. STOWE, D. D.

THE following remarks were originally prepared and delivered as an Address before the College of Professional Teachers in Cincinnati and Columbus, Ohio. They were first published in the American Biblical Repository for July, 1839, and in the same year republished in Boston by Marsh, Capen, Lyon and Webb, in a little volume, with the author's "*Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe, which was made to the General Assembly of Ohio, in December*, 1837."

"Ich versprach Gott: Ich will jedes preussische Bauerkind für ein Wesen ansehen, das mich bei Gott verklagen kann, wenn ich ihm nicht die beste Menschen-und Christen-Bildung schaffe, die ich ihm zu schaffen vermag."

"I promised God, that I would look upon every Prussian peasant child as a being who could complain of me before God, if I did not provide for him the best education, as a man and a Christian, which it was possible for me to provide."—*Dinter's Letter to Baron Von Altenstein.*

WHEN the benevolent Franke turned his attention to the subject of popular education in the city of Hamburgh, late in the seventeenth century, he soon found that children could not be well taught without good teachers, and that but few good teachers could be found unless they were regularly trained for the profession. Impressed with this conviction, he bent all his energies toward the establishment of a Teachers' Seminary, in which he finally succeeded, at Halle, in Prussia, about the year 1704; and from this first institution of the kind in Europe, well qualified teachers were soon spread over all the north of Germany, who prepared the way for that great revolution in public instruction, which has since been so happily accomplished under the auspices of Frederick William III. and his praiseworthy coadjutors. Every enlightened man, who, since the time of Franke, has in earnest turned his attention to the same subject, has been brought to the same result; and the recent movements in France, in Scotland; in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, and other States in the American Union, all attest the very great difficulty, if not entire impossibility, of carrying out an efficient system of public instruction without seminaries expressly designed for the preparation of teachers.

Having devoted some attention to this subject, and having spent considerable time in examining institutions of the kind already established in Europe, I propose in this paper to exhibit the result of my investigations. In exhibiting this result, I have thought proper to draw out, somewhat in detail, what I suppose would be the best plan, on the whole, without expecting that all parts of the plan, in the present state of education in our country, will be carried into immediate execution. I propose what I think ought to be aimed at, and what, I doubt not, will ultimately be attained, if the spirit which is now awake on the subject be not suffered again to sleep.

The sum of what I propose is contained in the six following propositions, namely:

I. The interests of popular education in each State demand the establishment, at the seat of government, and under the patronage of the legislature, of a NORMAL SCHOOL,† that is, a *Teachers' Seminary and Model-school*, for the instruction and practice of teachers in the science of education and the art of teaching.

* See page .

† The French adjective *normal* is derived from the Latin noun *norma*, which signifies *a carpenter's square, a rule, a pattern, a model*; and the very general use of this term to designate institutions for the preparation of teachers, leads us at once to the idea of a *model-school for practice*, as an essential constituent part of a *Teachers' Seminary*.

II. Pupils should not be received into the Teachers' Seminary under sixteen years of age, nor until they are well versed in all the branches usually taught in common schools.

III. The model-school should comprise the various classes of children usually admitted to the common schools, and should be subject to the same general discipline and course of study.

IV. The course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary should include three years, and the pupils be divided into three classes, accordingly.

V. The senior classes in the Teachers' Seminary should be employed, under the immediate instruction of their professors, as instructors in the model-school.

VI. The course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary should comprise lectures and recitations on the following topics, together with such others as further observation and experience may show to be necessary:

1. A thorough, scientific, and demonstrative study of all the branches to be taught in the common schools, with directions at every step as to the best method of inculcating each lesson upon children of different dispositions and capacities, and various intellectual habits.

2. The philosophy of mind, particularly in reference to its susceptibility of receiving impressions from mind.

3. The peculiarities of intellectual and moral development in children, as modified by sex, parental character, wealth or poverty, city or country, family government, indulgent or severe, fickle or steady, &c., &c.

4. The science of education in general, and full illustrations of the difference between education and mere instruction.

5. The art of teaching.

6. The art of governing children, with special reference to imparting and keeping alive a feeling of love for children.

7. History of education, including an accurate outline of the educational systems of different ages and nations, the circumstances which gave rise to them, the principles on which they were founded, the ends which they aimed to accomplish, their successes and failures, their permanency and changes, how far they influenced individual and national character, how far any of them might have originated in premeditated plan on the part of their founders, whether they secured the intelligence, virtue, and happiness of the people, or otherwise, with the causes, &c.

8. The rules of health, and the laws of physical development.

9. Dignity and importance of the teacher's office.

10. Special religious obligations of teachers in respect to benevolent devotedness to the intellectual and moral welfare of society, habits of entire self-control, purity of mind, elevation of character, &c.

11. The influence which the school should exert on civilization and the progress of society.

12. The elements of Latin, together with the German, French, and Spanish languages.

On each of the topics above enumerated, I shall attempt to offer such remarks as may be necessary to their more full development and illustration; and then state the argument in favor of, and answer the objections which may be urged against, the establishment of such an institution as is here contemplated.

To begin with the first proposition.

I. The interests of popular education in each state demand the establishment, at the seat of government, and under the patronage of the legislature, of a Normal School, that is, a Teachers' Seminary and model-school, for the instruction and practice of teachers in the science of education and the art of teaching.

If there be necessity for such an institution, there can be little doubt that the legislature should patronize and sustain it; for, new as our country is, and numerous as are the objects to which individual capital must be applied, there can be no great hope, for many years to come, of seeing such institutions established and supported by private munificence. It is a very appropriate object of legislative patronage; for, as the advantages of such an institution are clearly open to all the citizens of the State, and equally necessary to all, it is right that each should sustain his proper share of the expense.

Reserving my general argument in favor of these establishments till after a

more full development of their object, organization, and course of study, I shall confine my remarks under this head to the subject of legislative patronage, and the influence which such an institution would exert, through the legislature and officers of government, on the people at large. And in order that the institution may exert the influence here contemplated, it will appear obviously necessary that it be placed at the seat of government.

Popular legislators ought to have some objects in view besides the irritating and often petty questions of party politics. Any observing man, who has watched the progress of popular legislation among us, cannot but have noticed the tendency of continued and uninterrupted party bickering to narrow the mind and sour the temper of political men, to make them selfish, unpatriotic, and unprincipled. It is highly necessary for their improvement as men, and as republican lawgivers, that the bitterness and bigotry of party strife should sometimes be checked by some great object of public utility, in which good men of all parties may unite, and the contemplation and discussion of which shall enlarge the views and elevate the affections. The legislatures of several states have already had experience of these benefits. The noble institutions for deaf mutes, for the blind, and for the insane, which have grown up under their care, and been sustained by their bounty, are not less beneficial by the moral influence they exert, every year, on the officers of government who witness their benevolent operations, than by the physical and intellectual blessings which they confer on the unfortunate classes of persons for whom they were more particularly designed. Who can witness the proficiency of the blind and the mute in that knowledge which constitutes the charm of life, as witnessed in the annual exhibitions of these institutions at Columbus, during the sessions of the legislature, without feeling the blessedness of benevolence, and inwardly resolving to be himself benevolent! Without some such objects in view, political character deteriorates, and the legislator sinks to the demagogue. When our American Congress has had noble objects in view; when it has been struggling for the rights of man, and the great principles which are the foundations of free institutions, it has been the nursery of patriotism and the theater of great thoughts and mighty deeds; but when its objects have been mean, and its aims selfish, how sad the reverse in respect to its moral character and national influence!

Colleges, and institutions for the higher branches of classical learning, have seldom flourished in this country under legislative patronage; because the people at large, not perceiving that these institutions are directly beneficial to them, allow their legislators to give them only a hesitating, reluctant, and insufficient support. No steady, well-digested plan of improvement is carried consistently through, but the measures are vacillating, contradictory, and often destructive, not from want of sagacity to perceive what is best, but simply from want of interest in the object, and a consequent determination to maintain it at the cheapest rate. But an institution of the kind here contemplated, the people at large will feel to be for their immediate benefit. It is to qualify teachers for the instruction of their own children; and among the people throughout most of the free States, there is an appreciation of the advantages and necessity of good common-school instruction, which makes them willing to incur heavy sacrifices for the sake of securing it. They will, therefore, cheerfully sustain their legislators in any measure which is seen to be essential to the improvement and perfection of the common-school system; and that the establishment of a Normal School is essential to this, I expect to prove in the course of this discussion.

Supposing the institution to be established at the seat of government, under proper auspices, the legislature would every year witness its beneficial results; they would attend the exhibitions of its pupils both in the seminary and in the model-school, as they now, in several States, attend the exhibitions of the blind and mute; their views would be enlarged, their affections moved, their ideas of what constitutes good education settled; they would return to their constituents full of zeal and confidence in the educational cause, and impart the same to them; they would learn how schools ought to be conducted, the respective duties of parents, teachers, and school officers; they would become the most efficient missionaries of public instruction; and, ere long, one of the most important errands from their constituents would be, to find for them, in the Teachers' Seminary, a suitable instructor for their district school. Such an influence will be to

the school system, what electricity is to the operations of nature, an influence unceasing, all-pervading, lightning-winged.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction, in every State would be essentially aided by such an institution at the seat of government. He greatly needs it as a fulcrum to pry over, when he would move the legislature or the people. He cannot bring the legislature to the common schools, nor these to the legislature, to illustrate existing deficiencies or recommend improvements; but here is a model constructed under his own eye, which he can at any moment exhibit to the legislature, and by which he can give complete illustrations of all his views.

As the young men in the seminary grow up, he watches their progress, and ascertains the peculiar qualifications and essential characteristics of each individual; and, as he passes through the State, and learns the circumstances and wants of each community, he knows where to find the teacher best fitted to carry out his views, and give efficiency to the system in each particular location. Nothing is lost; the impression which he makes is immediately followed up and deepened by the teacher, before it has time to cool and disappear. A superintendent of schools without a Teachers' Seminary, is a general without soldiers, depending entirely on the services of such volunteers as he can pick up on his march, most of whom enlist but for the day, and go home to sleep at night.

Such is a brief view of the reasons for legislative patronage, and a location at the seat of government. I do not imagine that one institution will be enough to supply the wants of a whole state; but let THE ONE be established first, and whatever others are needful will speedily follow.*

We now proceed to our second general proposition.

II. Pupils should not be received into the Teachers' Seminary under sixteen years of age, nor until they are well versed in all the branches usually taught in the common schools.

The age at which the pupils leave the common school is the proper age for entering the Teachers' Seminary, and the latter should begin just where the former closes. This is young enough; for few persons have their judgments sufficiently matured, or their feelings under sufficient control, to engage in school-teaching by themselves, before they are twenty years old. It is not the design of the Teachers' Seminary to go through the common routine of the common-school course, but a thorough grounding in this is to be assumed as the foundation on which to erect the structure of the teacher's education.

III. The model-school should comprise the various classes of children usually admitted to the common schools, and should be subject to the same general discipline and course of study.

The model-school, as its name imports, is to be a model of what the common school ought to be; and it must be, therefore, composed of like materials, and subject to similar rules. The model-school, in fact, should be the common school of the place in which the Teachers' Seminary is situated; it should aim to keep in advance of every other school in the State, and every other school in the State should aim to keep up with that. It is a model for the constant inspection of the pupils in the teachers' department, a practical illustration of the lessons they receive from their professors; the proof-stone by which they are to test the utility of the abstract principles they imbibe, and on which they are to exercise and improve their gifts of teaching. Indeed, as School-counselor Dinter told a nobleman of East-Prussia, to set up a Teachers' Seminary without a model-school, is like setting up a shoemaker's shop without leather.

IV. The course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary should include three years, and the pupils be divided into three classes, accordingly.

The course of study, as will be seen by inspecting it in the following pages, cannot well be completed in less time than this; this has been found short enough for professional study in the other professions, which is generally commenced at a maturer age, and after the pupil has had the advantage of an academical or collegiate course; and if it is allowed that five or seven years are not too much to be spent in acquiring the trade of a blacksmith, a carpenter, or any of the

* This article was written in its special reference to Ohio, and the new States of the West. In some of the older States, the expense of living at the seat of government might operate as an objection to the location of the Seminary there.

common indispensable handcrafts, surely three years will not be deemed too much for the difficult and most important art of teaching.

V. The senior class in the Teachers' Seminary should be employed, under the immediate inspection of their professors, as instructors in the model-school.

The model-school is intended to be not only an illustration of the principles inculcated theoretically in the seminary, but is calculated also as a school for practice, in which the seminary pupils may learn, by actual experiment, the practical bearing of the principles which they have studied. After two years of theoretical study, the pupils are well qualified to commence this practical course, under the immediate inspection of their professors; and the model-school being under the inspection of such teachers, it is obvious that its pupils can suffer no loss, but must be great gainers by the arrangement.

This is a part of the system for training teachers which cannot be dispensed with, and any considerable hope of success retained. To attempt to train practical teachers without it, would be like attempting to train sailors by keeping boys upon Bowditch's Navigator, without ever suffering them to go on board a ship, or handle a ropeyarn. One must begin to teach, before he can begin to be a teacher; and it is infinitely better, both for himself and his pupils, that he should make this beginning under the eye of an experienced teacher, who can give him directions and point out his errors, than that he should blunder on alone, at the risk of ruining multitudes of pupils, before he can learn to teach by the slow process of unaided experience.

VI. Course of instruction in the Teachers' Seminary.

1. A thorough, scientific, and demonstrative study of all the branches to be taught in the common schools, with directions, at every step, as to the best method of inculcating each lesson on children of different dispositions and capacities, and various intellectual habits.

It is necessary here to give a general outline of a course of study for the common schools of this country. The pupils usually in attendance are between the ages of six and sixteen, and I would arrange them in three divisions, as follows:

First Division, including the youngest children, and those least advanced, generally between the ages of six and nine.

Topics of Instruction.—1. Familiar conversational teaching, in respect to objects which fall daily under their notice, and in respect to their moral and social duties, designed to awaken their powers of observation and expression, and to cultivate their moral feelings.

2. Elements of reading.
3. Elements of writing.
4. Elements of numbers.
5. Exercises of the voice and ear—singing by rote.
6. Select readings in the Pentateuch, Psalms, and Gospels.

Second Division, including those more advanced, and generally between the ages of nine and twelve.

Topics of Instruction.—1. Exercises in reading.
2. Exercises in writing.
3. Arithmetic.
4. Elements of geography, and geography of the United States.
5. History of the United States.
6. Moral and religious instruction in select Bible narratives, parables, and proverbs.
7. Elements of music, and singing by note.
8. English grammar and parsing.

Third Division, most advanced, and generally between the ages of twelve and sixteen.

Topics of Instruction.—1. Exercises in reading and elocution.
2. Caligraphy, stenography, and linear drawing.
3. Algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, with their application to civil engineering, surveying, &c.
4. English composition, forms of business, and book-keeping.
5. General geography, or knowledge of the earth and of mankind.
6. General history.

7. Constitution of the United States, and of the several States.

8. Elements of the natural sciences, including their application to the arts of life, such as agriculture, manufactures, &c.

9. Moral instruction in the connected Bible history, the life and discourses of Christ, the religious observation of Nature, and history of Christianity.

10. Science and art of vocal and instrumental music.

Thorough instruction on all these topics I suppose to be essential to a complete common-school education; and though it may be many years before our schools come up to this standard, yet I think nothing short of this should satisfy us; and, as fast as possible, we should be laboring to train teachers capable of giving instruction in all these branches. When this standard for the common school has been attained, then, before the pupil is prepared to enter on the three years' course of study proposed in the Teachers' Seminary, he must have studied all the topics above enumerated, as they ought to be studied in the common schools.

The study of a topic, however, for the purpose of applying it to practical use, is not always the same thing as studying it for the purpose of teaching it. The processes are often quite different. A man may study music till he can perform admirably himself, and yet possess very little skill in teaching others; and it is well known that the most successful orators are not unfrequently the very worst teachers of elocution. The process of learning for practical purposes is mostly that of combination or synthesis; but the process of learning for the purpose of teaching is one of continued and minute analysis, not only of the subject itself, but of all the movements and turnings of the *feelers* of the mind, the little *antennæ* by which it seizes and retains its hold of the several parts of a topic. Till a man can minutely dissect, not only the subject itself, but also the intellectual machinery by which it is worked up, he cannot be very successful as a teacher. The orator analyzes his subject, and disposes its several parts in the order best calculated for effect; but the mental processes by which he does this, which constitute the tact that enables him to judge right, as if by instinct, are generally so rapid, so evanescent, that it may be impossible for him to recall them so as to describe them to another; and it is this very rapidity of intellectual movement, which gives him success as an orator, that renders it the more difficult for him to succeed as a teacher. The musician would perform very poorly, who should stop to recognize each volition that moves the muscles which regulate the movement of his fingers on the organ-keys; but he who would teach others to perform gracefully and rapidly, must give attention to points minute as these. The teacher must stop to observe and analyze each movement of the mind itself, as it advances on every topic; but men of genius for execution, and of great practical skill, who never teach, are generally too impatient to make this minute analysis, and often, indeed, form such habits as at length to become incapable of it. The first Duke of Marlborough was one of the most profound and brilliant military men that ever lived; but he had been so little accustomed to observe the process of his own mind, by which he arrived with such certainty at those astounding results of warlike genius which have given him the first rank among Britain's soldiers, that he could seldom construct a connected argument in favor of his plans, and generally had but one answer to all the objections which might be urged against them, and that was usually repeated in the same words,—"Silly, silly, that's silly." A like remark is applicable to Oliver Cromwell, and several other men distinguished for prompt and energetic action. The mental habits best adapted for effect in the actual business of life are not always the mental habits best suited to the teacher; and the Teachers' Seminary requires a mode of instruction in some respects different from the practical school.

The teacher, also, must review the branches of instruction above enumerated with reference to their scientific connections, and a thorough demonstration of them, which, though not always necessary in respect to their practical application to the actual business of life, is absolutely essential to that ready command which a teacher must have over them in order to put them into the minds of others.

Nor is this all. There is a great variety of methods for inculcating the same truth; and the diversities of mind are quite as numerous as the varieties of method. One mind can be best approached by one method, and another mind by another; and in respect to the teacher, one of the richest treasures of expe-

rience is a knowledge of the adaptation of the different methods to different minds. These rich treasures of experience can be preserved, and classified, and imparted in the Teachers' Seminary. If the teacher never studies his profession, he learns this part of his duties only by the slow and wasteful process of experimenting on mind, and thus, in all probability, ruins many before he learns how to deal with them. Could we ascertain how many minds have been lost to the world in consequence of the injudicious measures of inexperienced and incompetent teachers; if we could exhibit, in a statistical table, the number of souls which must be used up in qualifying a teacher for his profession, by intrusting him with its active duties without previous study, we could prove incontrovertibly that it is great want of economy, that it is a most prodigious waste, to attempt to carry on a system of schools without making provision for the education of teachers.

2. The philosophy of mind, particularly in reference to its susceptibility of receiving impressions from mind.

The teacher should learn, at least, not to spoil by his awkward handling what Nature has made well; he should know how to preserve the intellectual and moral powers in a healthful condition, if he be not capable of improving them. But, through ignorance of the nature of mind, and its susceptibilities, how often are a teacher's most industrious efforts worse than thrown away—perverting and destroying rather than improving! Frequently, also, the good which is gained by judicious efforts in one direction is counteracted by a mistaken course in another.

Under this head there should be a complete classification of the sources of influence, a close analysis of the peculiar nature and causes of each, and of its applicability to educational purposes. There should be also a classification of the errors liable to be committed, with a similar analysis, and directions for avoiding them. It appears to me that there are some valuable discoveries yet to be made in this branch of knowledge; and that, for the purposes of education, the powers of the mind are susceptible of a classification much better than that which has hitherto generally been adopted.

3. The peculiarities of intellectual and moral development in children, as modified by sex, parental character, wealth or poverty, city or country, family government, indulgent or severe, fickle or steady, &c.

These diversities all exist in every community, and exert a most important influence on the developments of children; and no teacher can discharge his duties diligently and thoroughly without recognizing this extensive class of influences. The influence of sex is one of the most obvious, and no successful teacher, I believe, ever manages the boys and the girls of his school in precisely the same manner. But the other sources of influence are no less important. Parental character is one. Parents of high-minded and honorable feeling, will be likely to impart something of the same spirit to their children. Such children may be easily governed by appeals to their sense of character, and perhaps ruined by the application of the rod. If parents are mean-spirited and selfish, great allowance should be made for the failings of their children, and double diligence employed to cultivate in them a sense of honor.

The different circumstances of wealth and poverty produce great differences in children. The rich child generally requires restraint, the poor one encouragement. When the poor are brought in contact with the rich, it is natural that the former should feel somewhat sensitive as to the distinctions which may obtain between them and their fellows; and in such cases special pains should be taken to shield the sensibilities of the poor child against needless wounds, and make him feel that the poverty for which he is no way blamable is not to him a degradation. Otherwise he may become envious and misanthropic, or be discouraged and unmanned. But how often does the reverse of this take place, to the great injury of the character both of the poor and the rich! Surely it is misfortune enough to the suffering child that he has to bear the ills arising from ignorance or negligence, vice or poverty, in his parents; and the school should be a refuge for him, where he can improve himself and be happy.

Again, city and country produce diversities in children almost as great as the difference of sex. City children are inclined to the ardent, quick, glowing temperament of the female; country children lean more to the cooler, steadier,

slower development of the male. City children are more excitable; by the circumstances in which they are placed, their feelings are kept in more constant and rapid motion, they are more easily moved to good, and have stronger temptation to evil; while country children, less excitable, less rapid in their advances toward either good or evil, present, in their peculiarities, a broad and solid foundation for characters of stable structure and enduring usefulness. Though human nature is every where the same, and schools present the same general characteristics; yet the good country teacher, if he remove to the city, and would be equally successful there, will find it necessary to adopt several modifications of his former arrangements.

Many other circumstances give rise to diversities no less important. It is the business of the Teachers' Seminary to arrange and classify these modifying influences, and give to the pupil the advantages of an anticipated experience in respect to his method of proceeding in regard to them. No one will imagine that the teacher is to let his pupils see that he recognizes such differences among them; he should be wise enough to keep his own counsel, and deal with each individual in such manner as the peculiar circumstances of each may render most productive of good.

4. The science of education in general, and full illustration of the difference between education and mere instruction.

Science, in the modern acceptation of the term, is a philosophical classification and arrangement of all the facts which are observed in respect to any subject, and an investigation from these facts of the principles which regulate their occurrence. Education affords its facts, and they are as numerous and as deeply interesting as the facts of any other science; these facts are susceptible of as philosophical a classification and arrangement as the facts of chemistry or astronomy; and the principles which regulate their occurrence are as appropriate and profitable a subject of investigation as the principles of botany or zoology, or of politics or morals. I know it has been said by some, that education is not a science, and cannot be reduced to scientific principles; but they who talk thus either make use of words without attaching to them any definite meaning, or they confound the idea of education with that of the mere art of teaching. Even in this sense the statement is altogether erroneous, as will be shown under the next head.

The teacher should be acquainted with these facts, with their classification, their arrangement and principles, before he enters on the duties of his profession; or he is like the surgeon who would operate on the human body before he has studied anatomy, or the attorney who would commence practice before he has made himself acquainted with the first principles of law.

It is a common error to confound education with mere instruction; an error so common, indeed, that many writers on the subject use the words as nearly, if not entirely, synonymous. Instruction, however, comprehends but a very small part of the general idea of education. Education includes all the extraneous influences which combine to the formation of intellectual and moral character; while instruction is limited to that which is directly communicated from one mind to another. "*Education* and *instruction* (says Hooker) are the means, the one by *use*, the other by *precept*, to make our natural faculty of reason both the better and the sooner to judge rightly between truth and error, good and evil." A man may become well *educated*, though but poorly *instructed*, as was the case with Pascal and Franklin, and many others equally illustrious; but if a man is well *instructed*, he cannot, without some great fault of his own, fail to acquire a good *education*. *Instruction* is mostly the work of others; *education* depends mainly on the use which we ourselves make of the circumstances by which we are surrounded. The mischiefs of defective *instruction* may often be repaired by our own subsequent efforts; but a gap left down in the line of our *education* is not so easily put up, after the opportunity has once passed by.

5. The art of teaching.

The *art* of teaching, it is true, is not a *science*, and cannot be learned by theoretic study alone, without practice. The *model-school* is appropriately the place for the acquisition of this art by actual practice; but, like all the rational arts, it rests on scientific principles. The theoretical instruction, therefore, in this branch, will be limited mainly to a development of the principles on which it is

founded; while the application of those principles will be illustrated, and the art of teaching acquired, by instructing in the model-school under the care of the professors, and subject to their direction and remarks. The professor assigns to the pupil his class in the model-school, he observes his manner of teaching, and notices its excellences and defects; and after the class is dismissed, and the student is with him alone, or in company only with his fellow-students, he commends what he did well, shows him how he might have made the imperfect better, and the erroneous correct, pointing out, as he proceeds, the application of theoretic principles to practice, that the lessons in the model-school may be really an illustration of all that has been taught in the Teachers' Seminary.

6. The art of governing children, with special reference to the imparting and keeping alive of a feeling of love for children.

Children can be properly governed only by affection; and affection, rightly directed, is all-powerful for this purpose. A school governed without love is a gloomy, mind-killing place; it is like a nursery of tender blossoms filled with an atmosphere of frost and ice. Affection is the natural magnet of the mind in childhood; the child's mind is fitted by its Creator to be moved by a mother's love; and cold indifference or stern lovelessness repels and freezes it. In governing children there is no substitute for affection, and God never intended there should be any.

General rules can be given for the government of a school; the results of experience can be treasured up, systematized, and imparted; the candidate for the teacher's office can be exercised to close observation, patience, and self-control; and all these are essential branches of instruction in the art of governing. Still, if there be no feeling of love for children, all this will not make a good school-governor. There is great natural diversity in individuals in regard to this, as in all other affections; yet every one whom God has fitted to be a parent has the elements of this affection, and these elements are susceptible of development and improvement.

7. History of education, including an accurate outline of the educational systems of different ages and nations; the circumstances which gave rise to them; the principles on which they were founded; the ends which they aimed to accomplish; their successes and failures, their permanency and changes; how far they influenced individual and national character; how far any of them might have originated in premeditated plan on the part of their founders; whether they secured the intelligence, virtue, and happiness of the people, or otherwise, with the causes, &c.

To insure success in any pursuit, the experience of our predecessors is justly considered a valuable, and generally an indispensable aid. What should we think of one who claimed to be a profound politician while ignorant of the history of political science; while unacquainted with the origin of governments, the causes which have modified their forms and influences, the changes which have taken place in them, the different effects produced by various systems under diverse influences, and of the thousand combinations in which the past treasures wisdom for the future? What should we think of the lawyer who knew nothing of the history of law? or of the astronomer, ignorant of the history of astronomy? In every science and every art we recognize the value of its appropriate history; and there is not a single circumstance that gives value to such history, which does not apply, in all its force, to the history of education. Yet, strange to say, the history of education is entirely neglected among us; there is not a work devoted to the subject in the English language; and very few, indeed, which contain even notices or hints to guide one's inquiries on this deeply interesting theme. I wish some of those writers who complain that education is a *hackneyed* subject, a subject so often and so much discussed, that nothing new remains to be said upon it, would turn their inquiries in this direction, and I think they will find much, and that too of the highest utility, which will be entirely new to the greater part even of the reading population.

Man has been an educator ever since he became civilized. A great variety of systems of public instruction have been adopted and sustained by law, which have produced powerful and enduring influences; and are we to set sail on this boundless ocean entirely ignorant of the courses, and soundings, and discoveries of our predecessors?

The Hebrew nation, in its very origin, was subjected to a premeditated and thoroughly systematized course of national instruction, which produced the most wonderful influence, and laid the foundation for that peculiar hardihood and determinateness of character, which have made them the astonishment of all ages, a miracle among nations. A full development of this system, and a careful illustration of the particulars which gave it its peculiar strength, and of the circumstances which perverted it from good to evil, which turned strength into the force of hate, and perseverance into obstinacy, would be a most valuable contribution to the science of general education. The ancient Persians and Hindoos had ingenious and thoroughly digested systems of public instruction, entirely diverse from each other, yet each wonderfully efficacious in its own peculiar way. The Greeks were a busily educating people, and great varieties of systems sprung up in their different states and under their different masters, all of them ingenious, most of them effective, and some of them characterized by the highest excellences. Systems which we cannot and ought not to imitate, may be highly useful as warnings, and to prevent our trying experiments which have been often tried before, and failed to be useful. The Chinese, for example, have had for ages a system which is peculiarly and strictly *national;* its object has always been to make them *Chinese*, and nothing else; it has fully answered the purpose intended; and what has been the result?* A nation of machines, a people of patterns, made to order; a set of men and women wound up like clocks, to go in a certain way, and for a certain time, with minds wonderfully nice and exact in certain little things; but as stiff, as unsusceptible of expansion, as incapable of originating thought, or deviating from the beaten track, as one of their own graven images is of navigating a ship. In short, they are very much such a people as the Americans might become in a few centuries, if some amiable enthusiasts could succeed in establishing what they are pleased to denominate a system exclusively *American*. Education, to be useful, must be expansive, must be universal; the mind must not be trained to run in one narrow channel: it must understand that human beings have thought, and felt, and acted, in other countries than its own; that the results of preceding efforts have their value, and that all light is not confined to its own little Goshen.

When a science has become fixed as to its principles, when its facts are ascertained and well settled, then its history is generally written. Why, then, have we no history of education in our language? Simply, because the science of education, with us, is yet in its infancy; because, so far from being a hackneyed or an exhausted subject, on which nothing new remains to be said, its fundamental principles are not yet so ascertained as to become the basis of a fixed science. It cannot be pretended that there are no materials for the composition of such a history. We are not destitute of information respecting the educational systems of the most ancient nations, as the Chaldeans, Assyrians, Egyptians, and Carthaginians; and in respect to the Hindoos, the Persians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Chinese, the modern Europeans, the materials for their educational history are nearly as ample as those for their civil history; and the former is quite as important to the educator as the latter is to the civilian. The brief and imperfect, but highly interesting sketches, given by Sharon Turner in his History of England, afford sufficient proof of my assertion; and they are to a full history of English education, as the first streaks of dawn to the risen sun. Should Teachers' Seminaries do nothing else than excite a taste and afford the materials for the successful pursuit of this branch of study only, they would more than repay all the cost of their establishment and maintenance. Systems of education which formed and trained such minds as arose in Egypt, in Judea, in Greece—systems under whose influence such men as Moses and Isaiah, Solon, and Plato, and Paul, received those first impressions which had such commanding power over their mighty intellects, may afford to us many valuable suggestions. The several topics to which I have above alluded, as particularly worthy of notice in a history of those systems, are too obviously important to require a separate illustration.

8. The rules of health and the laws of physical development.

The care of the body while we are in this world is not less important than

the culture of the mind; for, as a general fact, no mind can work vigorously in a feeble and comfortless body; and when the forecastle of a vessel sinks, the cabin must soon follow. The educating period of youth is the time most critical to health; and the peculiar excitements and temptations of a course of study, add greatly to the natural dangers of the forming and developing seasons of life. Teachers, therefore, especially, should understand the rules of health, and the laws of physical development; and it is impossible that they should understand them, unless they devote some time to their study. What a ruinous waste of comfort, of strength, and of life, has there been in our educational establishments, in consequence of the ignorance and neglect of teachers on this point! And how seldom is this important branch of study ever thought of as a necessary qualification for the office of teacher!

As it is a most sacred duty of the teacher to preserve uninjured the powers of the mind, and keep them in a healthful condition, so it is no less his duty to take the same care of the physical powers. The body should not only be kept in health, but its powers should be developed and improved with as much care as is devoted to the improvement of the mind, that all the capabilities of the man may be brought out and fitted for active duty. But can one know how to do this if he never learns? And will he be likely to learn, unless he has opportunity of learning? It is generally regarded as the province of teachers to finish out and improve on Nature's plan; but if they can all be brought to understand their profession so well as not to mar and spoil what Nature made right, it will be a great improvement on the present condition of education in the world.

9. Dignity and importance of the teacher's office.

Self-respect, and a consciousness of doing well, are essential to comfort and success in any honorable calling; especially in one subject to so many external depressions, one so little esteemed and so poorly rewarded by the world at large, as that of the teacher. No station of so great importance has probably ever been so slightly estimated; and the fault has been partly in the members of the profession itself. They have not estimated their official importance sufficiently high; they have given a tacit assent to the superficial judgment of the world; they have hung loosely on the profession, and too often abandoned it the first opportunity. They ought early to understand that their profession demands the strongest efforts of their whole lives; that no employment can be more intimately connected with the progress and general welfare of society; that the best hopes and tenderest wishes of parents and of nations depend on their skill and fidelity; and that an incompetent or unworthy discharge of the duties of their office brings the community into the condition of an embattled host *when the standard-bearer faileth*. If teachers themselves generally had a clear and definite conception of the immensely responsible place they occupy; if they were skilled in the art of laying these conceptions vividly before the minds of the people among whom they labor, it would produce a great influence on the profession itself, by bringing it under the pressure of a mightier motive, and cause all classes of people more clearly to understand the inestimable worth of the good teacher, and make them more willing to honor and reward him. And this, too, would be the surest method of ridding the profession of such incumbents as are a disgrace to it, and an obstacle to its elevation and improvement. Julius Cæsar was the first of the Romans who honored school-teachers by raising them to the rank of Roman citizens, and in no act of his life did he more clearly manifest that peculiar sagacity for which he was distinguished.

10. Special religious obligations of teachers in respect to benevolent devotedness to the intellectual and moral welfare of society, habits of entire self-control, purity of mind, elevation of character, &c.

The duties of the teacher are scarcely less sacred or less delicate than those of the minister of religion. In several important respects he stands in a similar relation to society; and his motives and encouragements to effort must, to a considerable extent, be of the same class. It is not to be expected that teaching will ever become generally a *lucrative* profession, or that many will enter it for mere love of money, or that, if any should enter it from such a motive, they would ever be very useful in it. All teachers ought to have a comfortable support, and a competency for the time of sickness and old age; but what *ought to*

be and *what is*, in such a world as this, are often very different things. If a competency is gained by teaching, very few will ever expect to grow rich by it. Higher motives than the love of wealth must actuate the teacher in the choice of his profession, and animate him in the performance of its laborious duties. Such motives as the love of doing good, and peculiar affection for children, do exist in many minds, notwithstanding the general selfishness of the world; and these emotions, by a proper kind of culture, are susceptible of increase, till they become the predominant and leading desires. The teacher who has little benevolence, and little love for children, must be a miserable being, as well as a very poor teacher; but one who has these propensities strongly developed, and is not ambitious of distinction in the world of vanity and noise, but seeks his happiness in doing good, is among the happiest of men; and some of the most remarkable instances of healthy and cheerful old age are found among school-teachers. As examples, I would mention old Ezekiel Cheever, who taught school in New England for seventy-one years without interruption, and died in Boston in the year 1708, at the advanced age of ninety-three; or Dr. G. F. Dinter, now living at Konigsberg in Prussia, in the eightieth year of his age. Indeed, the ingenious author of Hermippus Redivivus affirms, that the breath of beloved children preserves the benevolent schoolmaster's health, as salt keeps flesh from putrefaction. In Prussia, school-teachers generally enter on their profession at the age of twenty-two or twenty-five, and the average term of service among the forty thousand teachers there employed is over thirty years, making the average duration of a teacher's life there nearly sixty years; a greater longevity than can be found in any profession in the United States. Many teachers continue in the active discharge of their official duties more than fifty years; and the fiftieth anniversary of their induction to office is celebrated by a festival, and honored by a present from government.

The other qualities mentioned, self-control, purity of mind, elevation of character, are so obviously essential to a teacher's usefulness, that they require no comment. We need only remark, that these are moral qualities, and can be cultivated only by moral means; that they are religious qualities, and must be excited and kept alive by religious motives. Will any one here raise the cry, *Sectarianism, Church and State?* I pity the poor bigot, or the narrow-souled unbeliever, who can form no idea of religious principle, except as a *sectarian thing;* who is himself so utterly unsusceptible of ennobling emotions, that he cannot even conceive it possible that any man should have a principle of virtue and piety superior to all external forms, and untrammeled by metaphysical systems. From the aid of such men, we have nothing to hope in the cause of sound education; and their hostility we may as well encounter in one form as another, provided we make sure of the ground on which we stand, and hold up the right principles in the right shape.

11. The influence which the school should exert on civilization and the progress of society.

It requires no great sagacity to perceive that the school is one of the most important parts of the social machine, especially in modern times, when it is fast acquiring for itself the influence which was wielded by the pulpit some two centuries ago, and which, at a more recent period, has been obtained by the periodical press. As the community becomes separated into sects, which bigotry and intolerance force into subdivisions still more minute, the influence of the pulpit is gradually circumscribed; but no such causes limit the influence of the school. Teachers need only understand the position they occupy, and act in concert, to make the school the most effective element of modern civilization, not excepting even the periodical press. A source of influence so immense, and which draws so deeply on the destinies of man, ought to be thoroughly investigated and considered, especially by those who make teaching their profession. Yet I know not, in the whole compass of English literature, a single work on the subject, notwithstanding that education is so worn out a theme, that nobody can say any thing new upon it.

12. The elements of Latin, together with the German, French, and Spanish languages.

The languages of Europe have received most of their refinement and their science through the medium of the Latin; and so largely are they indebted to

this tongue, that the elements of it are necessary as a foundation for the study of the modern languages. That the German should be understood by teachers, especially in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and the Western States generally, is obvious from the fact, that more than half the school districts contain German parents and children, who are best approached through the medium of their own tongue; and the rich abundance and variety of educational literature in this language, greater, I venture to say, than in all other languages together, render it an acquisition of the highest importance to every teacher. In the present state of the commercial world one cannot be said to have acquired a business education without a knowledge of French; while our intimate relations with Mexico and South America render the Spanish valuable to us, and, indeed, in the Western country, almost indispensable. The mental discipline which the study of these languages gives is of the most valuable kind, and the collateral information acquired while learning them is highly useful. Though a foreign tongue is a difficult acquisition for an adult, it is very easy for a child. In the Rhine provinces of Germany, almost every child learns, without effort, both German and French, and, in the commercial cities, English also; and the unschooled children of the Levant often learn four or five different languages merely by the ear. I do not suppose that the modern languages will soon become a regular branch of study in all our common schools; still, many who depend on those schools for their education, desire to study one or more of them, and they ought to have the opportunity; and if we would make our common schools our best schools, as they surely ought to be, the teachers must be capable of giving instruction in some of these languages.

I have thus endeavored to give a brief view of the course of study which should be pursued in a Teachers' Seminary, and this, I suppose, in itself, affords a strong and complete argument to establish the necessity of such an institution. A few general considerations in favor of this object will now be adduced.

1. The necessity of specific provision for the education of teachers is proved by the analogy of all other professions and pursuits.

To every sort of business in which men engage, some previous discipline is considered necessary; and this idea, confirmed by all experience, proceeds on the universal and very correct assumption, that the human mind knows nothing of business by intuition, and that miraculous inspiration is not to be expected. A man is not thought capable of shoeing a horse, or making a hat, without serving an apprenticeship at the business. Why, then, should the task of the schoolmaster, the most difficult and delicate of all, the management of the human mind, that most intricate and complex of machines, be left to mere intuition, be supposed to require no previous training? That the profession of school-teacher should so long be kept so low in the scale of professions, that it should even now be so generally regarded as a pursuit which needs, and can reward, neither time nor pains spent in preparation for its important duties, is a plain proof and example of the extreme slowness of the human race to perfect the most important parts of the social system.

2. A well-endowed, competent, and central institution, in a State, for the education of teachers, would give, in that State, oneness, dignity, and influence to the profession.

It would be a point of union that would hold the profession together, and promote that harmony and co-operation so essential to success. Teachers have been isolated and scattered, without a rallying-point or rendezvous; and the wonderful influence which has been exerted by the Western college of teachers (and other similar institutions in the Eastern States), the whole secret of which is, that it affords a central point around which teachers may rally, is but a faint shadow of what might be accomplished by a well-endowed and ably-manned seminary. Let there be some nucleus around which the strength of the profession may gather, and the community will soon feel its importance, and give it its due honor.

This object cannot be accomplished by small institutions scattered through the State, nor by erecting teachers' departments in existing institutions. The aggregate expense of such an arrangement would be quite as great as that of endowing one good institution; and without such an institution it would, after all,

accomplish but very little. It would be like distributing the waters of the canal to every little village in the State, instead of having them run in one broad and deep channel, suitable for navigation.

3. Such an institution would serve as a standard and model of education throughout the community.

The only reason why people are satisfied with an inferior system of common-school instruction is, that they have no experience of a better. No community ever goes voluntarily from a better to a worse, but the tendency and the effort generally are to rise in excellence. All our ideas of excellence, however, are comparative, and there will be little prospect of advancement unless we have a standard of comparison higher than any thing to which we have already attained.

A well-managed institution at the seat of government, which should embody all real improvements, and hold up the highest standard of present attainment, being visited by the executive officers, the legislators, the judges, the members of the bar, and other enlightened and influential men, who annually resort to the capital from every part of the State, would present a pattern to every school district, and excite emulation in every neighborhood. As an example of the rapidity with which improvements are taken, provided only there are appropriate channels for them to flow in, I may mention the practice of singing in schools, so recently introduced, and now so generally approved.

4. Such an institution would produce concentration of effort; its action would possess the vigor which strong sympathies impart; and it would tend to a desirable uniformity in books and modes of teaching.

I do not suppose that absolute perfection will ever be attained in the art of teaching; and while absolute perfection is not reached, it is certain there ought not to be entire uniformity in books and modes of teaching. But in this, as in all other human arts, there may be constant approximation toward the perfect; and this progress must be greatly accelerated by the concentration of effort, and the powerful sympathetic action of mind on mind, collected in one institution, and determined, as it were, to one focus. The action of such an institution would obviate the principal evils, now so strongly felt, arising from the diversity of books and methods; it would produce as much uniformity as would be desirable in the existing stage of improvement; and the more advanced the progress, the greater would be the uniformity.

5. All experience (experience which we generally appeal to as the safest guide in all practical matters) has decided in favor of institutions sustained by government for the education of teachers.

No country has ever yet obtained a sufficient number of well-qualified teachers in any other way; while every government which has adopted this method, and vigorously pursued it, either has already gained the object, or is in the fair way of gaining it, however unpromising the beginnings might have been. No country has ever been so well supplied with competent teachers as Prussia at the present moment, and yet, thirty years ago, the mass of school-teachers there was probably below the present average standard of New England and Ohio. Dinter gives several examples of ignorance and incapacity during the first years of his official labor in East Prussia, which we should scarcely expect to find anywhere in the United States; and the testimony of Dr. Julius before the British House of Commons, which was published in connection with my last report to the Legislature of Ohio, gives a similar view of the miserable condition of the Prussian schools at that time.

Now, what has been the great means of effecting so desirable an object in Prussia? Obviously, and by universal acknowledgment, the establishment of seminaries for the education of teachers.* The experiment was commenced by placing one in each of the ten provinces into which the kingdom is divided (equivalent to having one in each of the several States of this Union); and as their utility was tested, their number was increased; till now there are more than forty for a population of fourteen millions. Wirtemberg, Bavaria, Austria, Russia, Holland, France, and all other countries which desire to obtain a sufficient number of well-qualified teachers, find it necessary to follow this example; and I do not believe the United States are an exception to so general a rule. Indeed,

such institutions must be even more necessary for us than for them, since, from the crowded state of the professions in old countries, there is much greater competition for the appointment of schoolmaster there than here.

It now only remains that I state a few of the more prominent objections which are sometimes made to these institutions, and endeavor to answer them.

1. "Such institutions are unnecessary. We have had good teachers without them, and may have good teachers still."

This is the old stereotyped objection against every attempt at improvement in every age. When the bold experiment was first made of nailing iron upon a horse's hoof, the objection was probably urged that horseshoes were entirely unnecessary. "We have had excellent horses without them, and shall probably continue to have them. The Greeks and Romans never used iron horseshoes: and did not they have the best of horses, which could travel thousands of miles, and bear on their backs the conquerors of the world?" So, when chimneys and glass windows were first introduced, the same objection would still hold good. "We have had very comfortable houses without these expensive additions. Our fathers never had them, and why should we?" And at this day, if we were to attempt, in certain parts of the Scottish Highlands, to introduce the practice of wearing pantaloons, we should probably be met with the same objection. "We have had very good men without pantaloons, and no doubt we shall continue to have them." In fact, we seldom know the inconveniences of an old thing till we have taken a new and better one in its stead. It is scarcely a year since the New York and European sailing packets were supposed to afford the very *ne plus ultra* of a comfortable and speedy passage across the Atlantic; but now, in comparison with the newly-established steam-packets, they are justly regarded as a slow, uncertain, and tedious mode of conveyance. The human race is progressive, and it often happens that the greatest conveniences of one generation are reckoned among the clumsiest waste lumber of the next. Compare the best printing-press at which Dr. Franklin ever worked, with those splendid machines which now throw off their thousand sheets an hour; and who will put these down by repeating, that Dr. Franklin was a very good printer, and made very good books, and became quite rich without them?

I know that we have good teachers already; and I honor the men who have made themselves good teachers, with so little encouragement, and so little opportunity of study. But I also know that such teachers are very few, almost none, in comparison with the public wants; and that a supply never can be expected without the increased facilities which a good Teachers' Seminary would furnish.

2. "Such an institution would be very expensive."

True, it would cost more than it would to build a stable, or fence in a few acres of ground; and in this view of the matter a canal is expensive, and so is a public road, and many other things which the public good requires, and the people are willing to pay for. The only questions worthy of answer are: Whether the expense be disproportionate to the object to be secured by it? and whether it be beyond the resources of the country? To both these questions I unhesitatingly answer, No. The object to be secured is one which would fully justify any amount of expense that might be laid out upon it; and all that need be done might be done, and not a man in the State feel the poorer for it. We could not expect a perfect institution at once. We must begin where we are, and go forward by degrees. A school sufficient for all present purposes might well be maintained for five thousand dollars a year; and what is that for States with resources like most of the States of this Union, and for the sake of securing an object so great as the perfection of the school system? If the kingdom of Prussia, with fourteen millions of people, two-thirds of whom are very poor, and the other third not very rich, can support *forty-two* Teachers' Seminaries, surely such States as Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and Virginia, and others, with populations of more than a million, none of whom are very poor, and many fast growing rich, can afford to support *one*.

3. "We cannot be certain that they who study in such institutions would devote themselves to the business of teaching."

This objection applies with equal force to all professional institutions; and if it is of any weight against a Teachers' Seminary, it is equally available against

a medical school. The objection, however, has very little weight; for after a man has prepared himself for a profession, he generally wishes to engage in it, if he is competent to discharge its duties; and if he is not competent, the public are no losers by his withdrawal.

But let it even be supposed that a Teachers' Seminary should be established on the plan above sketched out, and occasionally a man should go successfully through the prescribed course of study, and not engage in teaching; are the public the losers by it? Is the man a worse member of society after such a course of study, or a better? Is he less interested in schools, or less able to perform the duties of a school officer, or less qualified to give a useful direction to the system among the people, than he would have been without such a course of study? Is he not manifestly able to stand on higher ground in all these respects, than he otherwise could have done? The benefit which the public would derive from such men out of the profession (and such would be useful in every school district) would amply remunerate all the expenses of the establishment. But such cases would be too few to avail much on either side of the argument; certainly, in any view of them, they can argue nothing against the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries.

4. "Teachers educated in such an institution would exclude all others from the profession."

Not unless the institution could furnish a supply for all the schools, and they were so decidedly superior that the people would prefer them to all others; in which case certainly the best interests of education demand that the statement in the objection should be verified in fact. But the success of the institution will not be so great and all-absorbing as this. It will not be able at once to supply half the number of teachers needed, and all who are educated in it will not be superior to every one who has not enjoyed its advantages. There is great diversity of natural gifts; and some, with very slender advantages, will be superior to others who have been in possession of every facility for acquisition. That such an institution will elevate the standard of qualification among teachers, and crowd out those who notoriously fall below this standard, is indeed true; but this, so far from being an objection, is one of its highest recommendations.

5. "One such institution cannot afford a sufficient supply for all the schools."

This is readily conceded; but people generally admit that half a loaf is better than no bread, especially if they are hungry. If we have a thousand teachers, it is much better that three hundred of the number should be well qualified, than that all should be incompetent; and five hundred would be still better than three hundred, and seven hundred better than either, and the whole thousand best of all. We must begin as well as we can, and go forward as fast as we are able; and not be like the poor fool who will not move at all, because the first step he takes from his own door will not land him at once in the place of his destination. The first step is a necessary preliminary to the second, and the second to the third, and so on till all the steps are taken, and the journey completed. The educated teacher will exert a reforming influence on those who have not been so well prepared; he will elevate and enlarge their views of the duties of the profession, and greatly assist them in their endeavors after a more perfect qualification.* He will also excite capable young men among his pupils to engage in the profession; for one of the greatest excitements of the young to engage in any business, is to see a superior whom they respect in the successful prosecution of it.

Every well-educated teacher does much toward qualifying those who are already in the profession without sufficient preparation, and toward exciting others to engage in it; and thus, though the institution cannot supply nearly teachers enough for all the schools, yet all the schools will be better taught in consequence of its influence. Moreover, a State institution would be the parent of many others, which would gradually arise, as their necessity would be appreciated from the perceived success of the first.

6. "The wages of teachers are not sufficient to induce teachers so well educated to engage in the profession."

At present this is true; for wages are generally graduated according to the

aggregate merit of the profession, and this, hitherto, has not been very great. People will not pay high for a poor article; and a disproportionate quantity of poor articles in market, which are offered cheap, will affect the price of the good, with the generality of purchasers. But let the good be supplied in such quantities as to make the people acquainted with it, and it will soon drive out the bad, and command its own price. The establishment of a Teachers' Seminary will raise the wages of teachers, by increasing their qualifications, and augmenting the real value of their services; and people eventually will pay a suitable compensation for good teaching, with much less grudging than they have hitherto paid the cheap wages of poor teachers, which, after all, as has been well observed, is but "buying ignorance at a dear rate."*

VII. SUNDAY-SCHOOLS

AND

THE AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION.

THE character and methods of religious instruction of the young in this country, through the home, the church and the school, and how far it has been or can be introduced into our common schools, would form an interesting subject of investigation and discussion. It is within the remembrance of perhaps many of us who received our early training in New England, that the Saturday morning in the district school was given to a lesson and drill in the "Assembly's Catechism," or "New England Primer," and in the earlier periods of New England history such was doubtless more uniformly the case. Indeed, an order of the General Court of Massachusetts in 1642 and the Connecticut Code of 1650 provided, "that all masters of families do, once a week at least, catechise their children and servants in the grounds and principles of religion, and if any be unable to do so much, that then, at the least, they procure such children or apprentices to learn some short orthodox catechism, without book, that they may be able to answer to the questions that shall be propounded to them out of such catechisms by their parents or masters, or any of the selectmen, when they shall have called them to a trial of what they have learned in this kind." It was customary for the heads of families to gather round them on Sunday their children and servants, for such instruction, and for the pastors to catechise the young of their congregations on the Sabbath, and at other times in the school and at their homes. And "Sunday-schools"—schools in which the children of a community met together on the Sabbath for common religious instruction—were probably not very unusual. In Roxbury, Mass., it is known that in 1674 a Sabbath school was established in the Congregational Church, at which the boys and girls were instructed after morning service by male and female teachers respectively, in the catechism and Scriptures. The noted Dr. Bellamy, settled at Bethlehem in Connecticut from 1740 till his death, was wont to meet the youth of his congregation for the purpose of catechetical and Biblical instruction, in which he was assisted by the members of his church. Also in Washington, Ct., in 1781,

it was the custom for the elders of the church to gather the children around them upon the shaded green, in the summer Sabbath intermissions, and there instruct them in the Bible and Assembly's catechism. Such schools were probably more or less common in all sections of the country. The plan devised by Robert Raikes of England in 1781, for the Sunday instruction of vagrant and vicious children, was soon imitated in this country. The first school of the kind was established by Bishop Asbury in Virginia, in 1783. Mr. Samuel Slater, father of the cotton manufacture in America, established a Sunday-school at Pawtucket, R. I., in 1797, for the benefit of his operatives, and sustained it for some time wholly at his own expense. In 1791, or earlier, there were "First-day" schools in Philadelphia, though it is not certain how far they were intended for religious instruction. The first in New York city is said to have been opened in 1793 by a poor African woman, Katy Ferguson, ignorant of any similar attempts elsewhere, for the good of the street children of her neighborhood. In 1796 also, a school for secular instruction on the Sabbath was organized in that city and incorporated, but it contemplated no religious instruction. Between 1801 and 1804 Mrs. Isabella Graham, with her daughter, wife of the late Dr. Bethune, who had become familiar with the English schools while traveling in Europe, opened a school in the city of New York at her own expense, and also superintended two or three others established through their instrumentality. In 1806 the Rev. S. Wilmer commenced a Sunday-school at Kent in Maryland, and in 1808 the same person began a school at Swedesboro' in New Jersey. In 1809 Mr. S. C. Blydon, a school teacher at Salem, Mass., opened a Sunday-school for instruction from 6½ to 8 A. M., and from 4½ to 6 P. M., free of all charge except for Bibles and blank-books. In 1807 the first Sabbath school society, in connection with a church, was formed at Pittsburg, by which a school was opened with 240 scholars. In 1811 schools were formed in Philadelphia by Rev. Robert May, a missionary from London. In 1813 a school was established by a gentleman in Albany. In 1814 two additional schools were opened in New York by two benevolent ladies, and also two in the districts of Philadelphia, and in the same year a school was formed at Wilmington in Delaware. In 1815 several schools were commenced in the Northern Liberties, which in a few months numbered 500 scholars. But these schools were a very different thing from the Sunday-schools of the present day. The teachers were hired; the children were for the most part only the very ignorant and often vicious children of the lowest classes,

and the spelling-book and hymn-book were the principal text-books required. To John Wesley, in 1785, is attributed the change from paid to voluntary teachers and from secular to religious instruction. This change commenced in the United States about 1809 and was simultaneous with the transfer of the control of the schools from individuals to churches. In June of the same year the first Sunday-school in Boston was commenced in connection with Christ Church, through the exertions of Mr. Shubael Bell, modeled on the plan of those established by the Episcopal Church in England, but was open to children of all denominations. This school had been projected in 1808 and the rector had then prepared a small volume, called the "Youth's Manual," to be used in instruction. In 1817 it was organized as the Salem Street Sunday-School Society, by which name it was long known, and under the superintendence of Mr. J. W. Ingraham it was for many years zealously and successfully conducted. In 1816 a Sunday-school was opened by six young men in Norwich, Ct., and in 1818 the four churches in Hartford united and formed a Sabbath school society and adopted measures for an efficient organization of a school in each of the congregations—though something had been done in that direction some time before.

But the first permanent association for the promotion of Sunday-schools in the United States, of which we have any authentic record, was the *First-day or Sunday-School Society*, established in Philadelphia, January 11, 1791. Members of different religious denominations were united in the enterprise, (among them were Dr. Rush, Robert Ralston, Paul Beck, Jr., William Rawle, Thomas B. Cope, Matthew Carey and Thomas Armat,) and Bishop White, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, was its first president and held the office until his decease. The constitution of this Society required that the instruction given in the schools established by it, or receiving its assistance, should be confined to "reading and writing from the Bible and such other moral and religious books as the Society may, from time to time, direct." The teachers were paid for their services. This Society is still in existence, though it has had no school under its charge since 1819, but it possesses a small fund accumulated from legacies and subscriptions, and applies the income (about $300) to the appropriation of books to needy Sunday-schools in Philadelphia and its environs.

The *New York Sunday-School Union* was instituted February 26, 1816, to "encourage and assist those engaged in the superintendence and instruction of Sunday-schools, to promote the establishment of new schools, to improve the method of teaching, and to

unite the Christian feelings, the counsels and labors of persons of different denominations in these benevolent undertakings." This ever active and well conducted Society finally became an auxiliary to the "American Union," and as such has continued its labors with encouraging success.

The *Philadelphia Sunday and Adult School Union* was formed May 26, 1817, with this leading design, to "cultivate unity and charity among those of different names, to ascertain the extent of gratuitous instruction in Sunday and adult schools, to promote their establishment in the city and in the villages in the country, to give more effect to Christian exertion in general, and to encourage and strengthen each other in the cause of the Redeemer." The Association embraced the members of the several Sunday and adult school societies of Philadelphia and other parts of the State of Pennsylvania, and increased from 43 schools with 556 teachers and 5,970 scholars in 1818, to 723 schools with 7,300 teachers and 49,619 scholars in 1824.

These three societies were quite local in their operations and influence, but all of them recognized the *Union* principle as the basis of their organization and sought to inculcate the great truths received by all the Evangelical denominations. After a useful career of seven years, the Philadelphia Sunday and Adult School Union, in obedience to a loud call for a new and more general organization, was merged in the AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION.

AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION.

The suggestion of forming such an association first came from New York, and on the 25th of May, 1824, the Society was formed in Philadelphia under the following constitution:—

ART. I. This Society shall be known by the name of the "AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION." Its objects are to concentrate the efforts of Sabbath School Societies in the different sections of our country—to strengthen the hands of the friends of religious instruction on the Lord's day—to disseminate useful information—circulate moral and religious publications in every part of the land, and to endeavor to plant a Sunday-school wherever there is a population.

ART. II. Each subscriber of three dollars annually shall be a member. Each subscriber, paying thirty dollars at one time, shall be a member for life. Sunday-School Societies or Unions, paying three dollars or more to the funds of this institution,* and sending a copy of their constitution, list of their officers, and an annual report, shall be auxiliary, and be entitled to purchase books at the reduced prices.

ART. III. The affairs and funds of this Society shall be under the direction of a Board, consisting of a President, Vice-Presidents, a Corresponding Secretary, Recording Secretary, Treasurer, and thirty-six Managers, twenty-four of whom shall reside in the city of Philadelphia or its vicinity. The Managers shall be divided into three classes, whose terms of service shall be respectively one, two, and three years; but they may be reëlected.

* This condition was repealed in 1831.

ART. IV. The Officers and Managers shall be laymen, and shall be elected by ballot.

ART. V. The Managers shall annually elect all officers of the Society, fill vacancies in their own body, make their own by-laws, publish such books, periodical works and tracts, as they may deem expedient, and may adopt such other measures as may, in their opinion, promote the objects of the Association. Seven Managers shall constitute a quorum.

ART. VI. The annual meetings of the Society shall be held at Philadelphia, on the first Tuesday after the 20th of May, when the proceedings of the past year shall be reported, the accounts presented, and the Managers chosen. Fifteen members shall constitute a quorum. If a quorum does not appear on the day of the annual meeting, the election of Managers shall take place at the next meeting whenever a quorum appears, and the Managers of the Society shall remain in office until a new election takes place.

ART. VII. Special meetings of the Society shall be called by the President, or in his absence, by either of the Vice-Presidents, at the written request of six Managers; of which meeting three days' public notice shall be given.

ART. VIII. Officers of Sunday-School Unions auxiliary to this Society, and clergymen whose schools are attached to it, shall have the privilege of attending the stated meetings of the Board of Managers.

ART. IX. No alteration in this constitution shall take place, unless the same shall be proposed, in writing, to the Board of Managers, at least three months previous to its adoption, and be approved by two-thirds of the members present, at a meeting duly notified.

This constitution remained substantially the same until 1845, when the Society was incorporated under a charter from the Legislature of Pennsylvania, containing nearly the same provisions.

The whole number of bound reading-books which were published by the Philadelphia Sunday and Adult School Union, at the time of its absorption in the American Sunday-School Union, was twenty-one, and the funds transferred, on which the new organization began business, was about $5,000.

The chief object of this new Society was "to endeavor to plant and sustain a Sunday-school wherever there was a population," and thus to place "the means of learning to read and understand the sacred Scriptures within the reach of every individual in our country"—an object that has been persistently and consistently kept in view in all the succeeding measures of the Society. To secure one of the first requisites, an organ of communication with the public, and a medium by which to instruct, encourage and stimulate Sunday-school teachers, a monthly publication (The Sunday-School Magazine) was commenced. This magazine was continued for seven years, when it assumed the form of a weekly newspaper, which, under various titles and with some changes in size, price and frequency of publication, has been continued till the present time, and "a more valuable repository of facts and principles connected with the subject of religious education in our country is not to be found." A periodical for young children, "The Youth's Friend," was likewise commenced and has continued in some form till the present. The Sunday-school of the kind contemplated

was for religious instruction exclusively, and was to receive all classes of children and care for them alike. But for such schools there was no precedent. The schools of the London School Union, which had been in operation since 1803 and had grown out of Raike's efforts, had embraced only the neglected and inferior classes of children, and were designed to supply the want of instruction in reading and writing and other necessary elementary knowledge. Even the First-day or Sunday-School Society of Philadelphia had in view rather the secular and moral than religious instruction of the children. There were no text-books or guides for instruction, and no other publication applicable for the purpose beyond the Bible itself and the catechism, except the few publications of the Sunday and Adult School Union. Moreover, where the influence of Sunday-schools was most needed was there the greatest hindrance to be overcome of variety of creeds and conflict of religious opinions and usages. To meet the latter difficulty two of the most important features of the Sunday and Adult School Union were retained, viz., that the Board of officers and managers should be laymen exclusively, and that they should include members of the principal Evangelical denominations of the country. And this principle has been preserved in all departments of the Society's business, principal and subordinate. Two distinct fields of labor opened before it from the outset, and were simultaneously entered upon—the multiplication of schools, especially in places otherwise destitute of religious teaching, and the preparation of suitable books. To secure the first object, agents, or "missionaries," as they were called, both clerical and lay, were sent out to explore districts that were especially needy, and there open new schools or prepare the way for them as might be practicable, to visit and encourage schools already existing, to organize auxiliary societies, and to solicit funds for the defrayment of their expenses. The compensation paid to such missionaries did not exceed, on an average, a dollar a day for the time actually expended. The total expenses of the missionary service for the first two or three years were defrayed by these voluntary contributions made at the monthly concerts of prayer for Sunday-schools, and by the admission fees of members and auxiliaries. For the use of these schools elementary books were needed, such as primers, spelling-books, testaments, hymn-books, &c., which were furnished by the Society gratuitously if necessary, or at a very low price, (two to eight cents each.) In the second year the missionary work was placed in charge of a special committee, and a general agent was employed to visit the different sections of the country for

the purpose of awakening a more general interest in the objects of the Society, and to obtain contributions in the larger cities. The pecuniary results of this agency were less than $2,500, but the Society were encouraged by the increased favor with which its labors were received, by the new openings for more extended missionary work, and by the increased demand for its publications. The department of publication had been committed to a "Committee of Publication" of five members, chosen from and by the managers, of different denominations. No publication was permitted that had not their unanimous approval. The sales of the second year were over $8,000. In the following year suitable premises for the use of the Society were secured, at a total cost of over $40,000, of which a third part was contributed by citizens of Philadelphia, and the remainder secured by mortgage.

It was at about this time that a change was introduced in the method of religious instruction in the schools, which has added greatly to their influence and usefulness. The practice of committing passages of Scripture to memory, held at first a prominent place in the exercises of the schools. The Westminster and other catechisms, though used in some schools, were not in general use and of course were not furnished among the Society's publications. Hence the children were expected and encouraged to learn to repeat verses from the Bible as a regular and almost exclusive form of recitation; whole chapters and not unfrequently entire books of the Bible were thus committed to memory and a thoughtless and vain repetition of words too often claimed undeserved merit, to the exclusion of more useful exercises of the intellect and reason. The first step to improvement in this particular was the selection of a definite portion of Scripture for the whole school. This was followed by a systematic series of selections from the gospel history, in chronological order, comprising 47 lessons of 10–20 verses each, printed upon cards. The use of these lessons gave time for explanations and questions from the teacher, and made necessary, upon his part, some degree of skill and preparation. As an aid to the teacher, therefore, and to supply to some extent this necessity, a series of question books was next devised by Rev. Albert Judson, at that time agent of the New York Sunday-School Union. These "Union Questions" were so arranged as both to meet the different capacities of the members of a class and to enable the teacher to limit or enlarge the course of instruction at pleasure. The proposed method of study and instruction in connection with the question books, consisting of the committal of the lesson to memory by the scholars,

the faithful study of the lesson by the teacher, and the meeting of the teachers, under the direction of the pastor or superintendent, for mutual instruction in preparation for the following Sunday's teaching, has been proved by all subsequent experience the most efficient and successful course that could be devised. The introduction of these books caused an almost complete revolution in the management of the Sunday-schools, not only of the Society but of all other denominational schools. The Society now publish seventeen question books for children of different ages and covering the greater part of both the Old and New Testament, besides numerous aids for the use of teachers and scholars, while many more books upon substantially the same plan have been prepared and published by other societies in this country and England.

The "ticket system" had been in quite prevalent use before the organization of this Society, and had assumed a peculiar form in the schools of this country. By this system small tickets of different colors, with a text of Scripture printed upon each, had certain arbitrary values attached to them, as might be agreed upon. A blue ticket was given to a child for the recitation of a hymn, or a certain number of verses from the Bible, for punctuality or regularity of attendance, good behavior, &c. Five, ten or twenty of these blue tickets were made equivalent to one red one, and two or more red tickets entitled the holder to a two, five, ten or twenty cent book, which became the child's own property, or in case of poor children, they might even be redeemable with shoes, stockings, &c. Besides that a mercenary motive was thus appealed to, there could not but result various and great inequalities in the distribution of tickets, and moreover the expense in a large school was not inconsiderable. This plan, therefore, gave place gradually to the more economical and more generally useful circulating library, and thus arose the "Sunday-school Library" feature, at that time peculiar to American Sunday-schools. But at first the number of books at all appropriate for the purpose was extremely limited; not above 30 or 40 could be collected from all sources and many of these were reprints of English books.* The demand which soon arose was, however, one which book-manufacturers generally would not care to supply. It was necessary that the books should be furnished as cheaply as possible and that they should be free from all sectarian peculiarities. Such books the Society undertook to furnish, circulated its priced catalogues all over the land, and opened depositories at various points. The number of these book agencies in 1827 was 67.

* The Appendix to the 26th Annual Report of the Society gives interesting information respecting the juvenile books then in popular use.

When the Society was instituted in 1824 there were in connection with the Philadelphia Sunday and Adult School Union 723 schools, 7,300 teachers, and 46,619 scholars, all of which were transferred to the American Sunday-School Union. In May, 1828, these numbers had increased to 2,560 schools, 32,756 teachers, and 259,656 scholars; and in May, 1829, to 5,901 schools, 52,663 teachers, 349,202 scholars, and 234,587 volumes in school libraries. These schools were scattered over every State in the Union, while "Michigan Territory" also reported 1 school with 23 teachers and 160 scholars.

So extended had now become the operations of the Society that it was deemed prudent by the Board of Managers to obtain an act of incorporation, empowering them to hold a limited amount of property necessary for the carrying on of the business, and to thus relieve themselves of personal pecuniary responsibility. But the application for a charter was met with such suspicion and gave rise to such a degree and kind of hostility from the members of the Legislature as was wholly unexpected; the charter was denied and not till 1845 was the application renewed. The receipts of the Society had been $4,000 in the first year, $9,000 in the second, $19,000 in the third, and $58,000 in the fourth, at the end of which year, however, the debts of the Society amounted to $35,000 and the effective capital to but $25,000. Still the opportunities for the organization of new schools at the West were so many and favorable, and the calls for assistance were so urgent and incessant, that the Board were incited to more extended labors. A meeting of delegates, representing the Sunday-Schools of fourteen different States, held at Philadelphia in May, 1828, encouraged the Society in its endeavors by promises of coöperation and an immediate subscription of nearly $5,000. In 1829 was established at Cincinnati the first permanent agency in the Western States, and that section was thoroughly explored by an agent with a view to a more systematic missionary labor, and at the following anniversary of the Society in May, 1830, it was resolved, so far as practicable, to organize a Sunday-school, within two years, in every destitute place in the valley of the Mississippi. This purpose was received with favor and entered upon with zeal, nearly $25,000 were subscribed and collected in Philadelphia and New York within a few days, and numerous ardent and enterprising missionaries were sent into the field.

Large additions were now made to the number of books for library use, and similar publications began also to be issued by other organizations. The great mass of the library books of the Society

consisted of scriptural and other authentic biographies, missionary history, and expositions, illustrations and enforcements of religious truths. Some were purely didactic, while some employed fictitious narrative as a means of enforcing doctrinal precepts, but "as a whole the Society's publications are probably as free from every thing of a light or fictitious nature as any collection of books of this class in the English language." The demands for books were so urgent from its missionaries in the field as to compel an anticipation of the Society's receipts in order to supply them, and debts were incurred in 1831 to the amount of nearly $80,000.*

In May, 1832, a meeting of Sunday-school superintendents and teachers was held in Philadelphia, at which were delegates from fifteen different States, principally for the purpose of gaining information respecting the results of the preceding seven years' labors; a series of interrogatories was addressed to the superintendents and teachers of Sunday-schools throughout the country, and it was proposed to hold a convention "for the purpose of considering the principles of the institution, the duties of officers, and the best plan of organization, instruction, and discipline." This convention assembled in New York on the 10th of October, 1833, and continued in session three days, Hon. Theodore Frelinghuysen presiding.

The legitimate field of labor of the Society, though it might under the constitution be considered as unrestrained, has always been limited to the territory of the United States, and though repeatedly solicited, it has ever refused to extend its missionary work beyond those limits. But in 1833 an earnest appeal was made by the Board for Foreign Missions for assistance in translating its works for the use of schools at foreign missionary stations, and an agency was created to raise $12,000 for this purpose. Less than a third of the amount was thus secured, from which appropriations were made to missions in India, China, Greece, Persia, Turkey and the Sandwich Islands; donations of books were also made to the Ceylon and India missions and for distribution in South America, Russia, and Prussia, and a depository for the sale of its books was established at Calcutta. Various translations have been made of the Society's publications into French, German, Greek, Swedish, Portuguese, Bengalee, and some other Indian languages.

At the same time special attention was directed to the Southern States, and after a preliminary survey of the territory by the late Rev. Robert Baird, D. D., the effort was commenced to supply the

* The 9th Annual Report, May, 1831, contains a statement of the operations of the Society to that time, shows the great economy of Sunday-school instruction, and vindicates the course of the Society upon the controverted subject of the use of fiction in religious books.

obviously existing want of Sunday-schools, by missionary labor, as at the West. But the attempt was met with suspicion and jealousy. Of the $30,000 contributed for the object, nearly half was raised from Virginia, Georgia and South Carolina, and the greater part of the remainder from New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island, and as in 1838 the appropriations to this field exceeded the contributions by nearly $3,000, the work from that date, in great part, ceased to be one for special appropriations. Indeed, the selection of such special fields of labor and the excitement of a strong popular interest which proves but temporary, has been always found to be rather disadvantageous than otherwise. As in the appeal for the West in 1830, which resulted in contributions amounting to $50,000 in two years, while in the succeeding six years the average was but $10,500, the fitful or uncertain gifts of impulse and excitement are of far less value than the more limited, perhaps, but more uniform and permanent resource found in intelligent sympathy and a calm sense of duty.*

The publication of the "Youth's Friend," a small 18mo. monthly of 16 pages, was still continued, but in 1843 a child's paper, the "Youth's Penny Gazette," was commenced—the forerunner of the now so popular, numerous and widely distributed children's papers. The doubts of success that attended its establishment were soon removed. The "Sunday-School Journal" had now been published nearly twenty years, intended expressly for teachers, and every effort had been made to suit their circumstances, in matter, manner, and price, with various but never satisfactory success. It was now sought to extend its circulation by a reduction of the price to twenty-five cents a year.

As early as in 1826 the plan of district school libraries had been suggested in the publications of the Society, and at the annual meeting in 1837 the Board were instructed to prepare and furnish at the lowest price a small select library for the use of common schools. A selection of 121 volumes was therefore made from the books of the Society and no labor or expense was spared to introduce them to the notice of parties interested. But the selection was generally objected to as of too strictly religious a character, and was adopted in comparatively few instances, though regarded with favor by those who understood its character and the design of the Society in preparing it.

In 1840 Rev. Dr. Tyng was sent upon a mission to England,

* For a view of the magnitude and importance of the work that had been done up to this time see the 15th Annual Report of the Society.

especially to the London Sunday-School Union and London Religious Tract Society, which was attended with very desirable results. Donations of considerable value were received from both Societies, and relations were established with them that promised important future advantages. The first legacy made to the Society was received in 1845, since which time some very valuable bequests have been made, the chief being that of Mr. Elliott Cresson, by which the interest on $50,000 was appropriated annually to the use of the Society. The funds out of which the expenses of the Society in its missionary work have been defrayed have been for the most part collected from the various Evangelical churches. Some contributions are voluntary, but the most are raised by appeals to the churches through collecting agents appointed for the purpose, who are almost exclusively clergymen and are remunerated for their services. In 1841 the amount of these collections was $14,260. In 1848 the amount of voluntary contributions was $6,296, collected by agents (nine in number) $24,797, at an expense of $7,437. Forty-three missionaries were employed at an expense of $11,894, and libraries, tracts, books, &c., were supplied gratuitously to the amount of $9,701. Of 770 new schools formed, 676 were in the seven States of Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Texas and the territory of Wisconsin, and most of the labor of the missionaries was expended upon those States. In 1856 the amount of donations was $60,487, besides $7,300 received by bequest; sixteen collecting agents were employed with salaries of $16,705 and with an additional expense of $4,106, (an average expense of $150 per month.) Three hundred and three missionaries were also employed, besides the secretaries of missions, with salaries amounting to $23,587 and additional expenses amounting to $12,182, (averaging $76 each per month.) In this year 2,528 new schools were organized with 16,470 teachers and 104,532 scholars, and the value of books gratuitously distributed was $19,650. In the preceding 5 years there had been organized 10,300 new schools, 65,300 new teachers engaged and 400,000 scholars gathered in, and 13,500 schools visited and aided. The finances of the publication department are kept entirely distinct from those of the missionary work. The expenses here are defrayed from the proceeds of the books sold. In 1839 the expenses of making and selling the books disposed of was $81,065—the amount received therefor was $82,011; in 1841 the sales of books amounted to $55,056, the expenses $57,258. In all cases the Society's publications are sold as nearly at cost as possible. The character of the publications has been very various. There are

now on the Society's catalogue 2,000 or more distinct publications. Of these, 1,000 are bound books for the library or for the use of teachers, many of them are small story and picture-books for the younger children, while for the general uses of the Sunday-school there is a large variety of question-books, hymn and music-books, reading and spelling-books, maps, prints, rewards, tickets, infant school cards, record-books, &c., &c. The library books are mostly arranged in select libraries of 50, 75 or 100 volumes each, and sold at an average price of 10 cents (at present, 12 cents) a volume. The four select libraries of 100 volumes each have had a very large circulation. More than 5,000,000 bound volumes have probably been issued in this form alone, at an expense of at least $600,000. The committee of publication consists of fourteen persons, including not more than three from any one denomination, and nothing can receive the imprint of the Society without their unanimous sanction. Their sanction of a book is an assurance not only of its freedom from sectarianism, but "that it sustains a decidedly religious character; that nothing is inculcated at variance with Evangelical truth, or sound morality; that its general tendency is to improve the heart, enlarge the capacity, correct the morals, and excite a taste for intellectual pursuits." The annual report of May, 1848, gives the number of new publications for the year as 83, though not more than one in ten of those offered to the committee was accepted. For some years after its organization the Society printed a stereotyped edition of the Bible and also a cheap edition of the New Testament, but on the foundation of the American Bible Society the publication of these was relinquished, in order to avoid a complicity of interests or objects, and for the same reason, upon the organization of the American Tract Society and at its request, it ceased the publication of the religious tracts of which it had previously issued a large number.

A convention of secretaries, agents and missionaries was held at Cincinnati in October, 1855, which proved an occasion of great interest and profit. Numerous topics were discussed connected with the workings of the Sunday-school missionary operation, and the conclusions arrived at were in almost every instance unanimous. The experience and observations of the missionaries were combined and compared with the experience and observations of the managers; the secretaries gained information that in no other way could have been acquired without years of inquiry, and the missionaries received views of their work that gave it new dignity, importance, and interest in their eyes.

In August, 1847, the Society suffered the loss of its first and up to that time only president, Alexander Henry. An emigrant from Ireland in 1783, at the age of 18, with but small resources, through his probity and business talent he soon built up an extensive and profitable business from which he retired in 1807, though compelled to resume it after the war of 1812. In 1818 he again resigned business and in the same year, as a man of high personal piety, of sound judgment, and of commanding influence, he was appointed president of the Philadelphia Sunday and Adult School Union and so remained till that Society was merged in the American Sunday-School Union, to the headship of which he was transferred and held it till his decease, at the age of 82. In his office "he manifested the enterprise, the judgment and the prudence of a wise and good man, and combining expanded views with a judicious execution of well selected plans, he spared neither the ardor of his mind nor his great personal influence, nor free and large supplies of pecuniary aid." He was succeeded in 1849 by Hon. Judge John McLean, who still continues in office.

The system of auxiliary schools and societies was a somewhat prominent feature in the first organization of the Society, as a means of concentrating "the efforts of Sunday-school societies in the different sections of our country," and it is supposed that at one time ⅓ of all the Sunday-schools in the land were connected with the Society. But local interests and prejudices, denominational preferences, national jealousies, and irritating topics of a political or moral bearing, and other causes, were so influential in opposition that of the 1,364 schools and societies that had been recognized as auxiliaries prior to 1839, only 46 were reported at the annual meeting in that year, and the number has since then still farther diminished.

The American Sunday-School Union has, in the course of its 40 years' labors, been subjected to the hostility of various opposing influences, which it has successfully withstood. The principle of *Union*, which lies at its foundation and to which it has consistently clung, has found opponents among all the several Evangelical denominations of whose members it is composed. Yet as a pioneer of all, a laborer in fields occupied by none, it has gone on, acting upon the conviction that a knowledge of the generally received gospel truths is better than complete ignorance—that the light thus shed must be better than darkness.* Most of the denominations have established societies for the promotion of strictly denomina-

* This question is discussed quite fully in the 14th Annual Report for May, 1838.

tional schools and the publication of books for instruction and reading from which their peculiar tenets should not be excluded. Of these one of the earliest, as well as most active and earnest, is the Sunday-School Union of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By the report for 1829, they had at that time 331 auxiliaries, and 2,000 schools with 30,000 teachers and 130,000 scholars. They have in 1863 about 13,000 schools with 148,000 teachers and 841,000 scholars, and libraries containing nearly 2½ millions of books. Two periodicals are published by this Society, one for teachers and another for scholars. The sectional division of the church resulted in the establishment of a distinct publishing house at Nashville, the extent of whose publications can not now be stated. The General Protestant Episcopal Sunday-School Union and Church Book Society was established in November, 1826, not for the purpose of establishing or regulating schools but to aid them by means of books and other publications. Its reports therefore contain no returns of schools, scholars, &c. The Massachusetts Sunday-School Society (Congregational) was established in 1833, embracing in its field other States of New England, and to some degree the West. The Presbyterian Sunday-School Society, the New England Baptist Society, and others might be mentioned. The New York Sunday-School Union, the Rhode Island Sunday-School Union and some other general societies are auxiliary to the American Sunday-School Union, and are organized on the same principle, but their operations are restricted to their own vicinity, and they do not engage in publishing books or collecting money for establishing schools in other States. The American Sunday-School Union is the only Sunday-school society in the United States that employs Sunday-school missionaries, or forms Union schools, or publishes Union Sunday-school books. Yet there are some six or seven denominational societies engaged in the publication of Sunday-school books, three tract societies also issue books intended for the same purpose, and eight or ten private publishing houses are engaged in the same business. Aside from reprints of English books, there are probably not less than 5,000 distinct works designed for Sunday-school libraries.

Another element of opposition has at times arisen from its relations as a "publishing house," but it has prudently and consistently acted in its publishing department with a view rather to do good than to make a profit; the book agency has been kept subservient to the missionary work, and its publications restricted to the legitimate use of Sunday-schools; it has kept carefully within its constitutional limits, has scrupulously endeavored to encroach as little as

possible upon the peculiar domain of other publishing societies, or private publishing houses, and has confined its business, as far as possible, strictly to its own publications.

Scarcely more than half a century therefore has sufficed to give to the Sunday-school the position which it now holds in the field of education. Religious instruction has been withdrawn from the common school and intrusted wholly to the home and the church; and as "the Evangelist of the district school," the Sunday-school has arisen, not indeed to interrupt or displace parental and pastoral culture but to supply their unavoidable deficiencies and to act where they can not. As improvements have been made and a rapid advancement effected in the system of free popular secular instruction, so a like progress is evident in the kindred system of popular religious culture, for the systems though distinct are not wholly independent, the two react mutually in a measure upon each other, as the one is the complement of the other.* And in the less enlightened sections of our country, in many portions of the new States, and in many dark corners of our larger towns and cities,† where vice and ignorance together congregate, the Sunday-school, by the self-denying labors of the missionary, with the aid of the even more unceasing and earnest philanthropist, the Sunday-school teacher, oftentimes becomes the precursor and pioneer both of the district school and of the church. In multitudes of instances it becomes both the moral and mental light of the neighborhood, and children and adults here learn to read who otherwise could not or would not do so. The establishment of Sunday-school libraries and the circulation of millions of books among children and youth, has not only in itself diffused a vast amount of information but has aided greatly to satisfy and to foster that love of reading which has become a characteristic of the American people. And not least of all, these schools are a proof of the actual good flowing from a living, practical Christianity, being at once the fruit and root of an humble piety and a self-sacrificing charity.

* The relation of the Sunday to the secular school is discussed in the 32d Annual Report of the Society for May, 1856.

† Since 1848 special attention has been given to the establishment of "Mission Schools," gathering in for religious instruction the vagrant and vicious children of the streets of the larger cities into comfortable school-rooms, and supplying the needy at the same time with food and articles of clothing.

VIII. THE ENDOWED GRAMMAR SCHOOLS OF IRELAND,

WITH A SKETCH OF THEIR HISTORY AND CONDITION.

On the destruction of the old parochial system of education that at first existed in connection with the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland, and in the subsequent efforts to supply the educational destitution attendant upon centuries of political disturbance, a large number of Endowed Schools were established, which still exist, and of which the Report of the Queen's Commission in 1858 gives a detailed account. This Commission, appointed in 1854, was composed of the Marquis of Kildare, Charles Grans, D. D., Robert Andrews, LL. D., Henry George Hughes, Esq., and Archibald John Hughes, Esq. They were aided in the work of personal inspection by four assistant commissioners, and their investigation, extending through three years, embraced all schools that were to any extent supported by endowments. We shall not attempt a very minute abstract of the Report and its accompanying documents, which occupy three large folio volumes, but will give such an exhibit of these educational institutions of Ireland, as will present and would probably be sought in vain in any other printed documents, the condition of secondary education in that portion of Great Britain.

These schools may be distinguished as follows:—Diocesan Free Schools; Royal Free Schools; Erasmus Smith's Schools; Incorporated Society's Schools; Private Endowed Schools under the Commissioners of Education; and Endowed Schools under the care of other Societies.

DIOCESAN FREE SCHOOLS.

Diocesan Free Schools are the oldest of the existing endowed schools in Ireland. They were first placed on a government basis in 1570 by an Act of the Irish Parliament, thirty-three years after the act which imposed on the clergy of the United Church the obligation of keeping parochial schools, and twenty years before the foundation of Trinity College, Dublin.

In 1539, the report of a commission for the suppression of abbeys, called forth a recommendation for the preservation of some six of the religious houses, for the reason that—"In them young men and children, both gentlemen children and other, both of mankind and womankind, be brought up in virtue, learning, and in the English tongue and behaviour, to the great charge of the said houses; that is to say, the womenkind of the whole Englishry of this land, for the one part, in the said nun-

nery, and the mankind in the other said houses." This recommendation, however, was not successful, and the houses were suppressed.

This suppression of religious houses in which provision had been made for education, especialiy of a superior kind, created a want of schools, which the Diocesan Free Schools were intended to supply. The Act of Elizabeth founding them is entitled "An Act for the Erection of Free Schools," and recites—"Forasmuch as the greatest number of the people of this your Majesty's realm hath of long time lived in rude and barbarous states, not understanding that Almightie God hath by his divine laws forbidden the manifold and haynous offences which they spare not daily and hourly to commit and perpetrate, nor that hee hath by his Holy Scriptures commanded a due and humble obedience from the people to their princes and rulers, whose ignorance in these so high pointes, touching their damnation, proceedeth only of lack of good bringing up of youth of this realm, either in publique or private schooles, where through good discipline they might be taught to avoide these lothsome and horrible errours." It then provides that there should be henceforth "a free school within every diocese of Ireland;" the school-house (where none existed) to be erected in the principal shire-town at the cost of the whole diocese; the endowment to be paid one-third by the ordinaries, and two-thirds by the other ecclesiastical persons in each diocese. It provides that the schoolmaster shall be an Englishman, or of English birth, appointed by the archbishop or bishop in the dioceses of Armagh, Dublin, Meath, and Kildare, and by the Lord Deputy in other cases, who should also determine the master's salary. But little was done by either archbishop, bishop, or Lord Lieutenant, to carry into effect the wise purpose of the good queen, and advantage was taken of defects in the law, the difficulty of determining in all cases the "principal shire-town" of each diocese, and the difficulty of assessing the expenses in such dioceses as were not conterminous with counties, to avoid the execution of the law, and, even where the schools were once established, to suffer them to go to decay. An Act of William III., in 1694, in which they are called "Public Latin Free Schools," provided for the enforcement of the Statute of Elizabeth, but a subsequent Act of 1725 shows that both were so defective that in many dioceses their provisions could not be carried out and "had not answered the pious and good design thereby intended." Acts afterwards passed in 1755 and 1781 were equally fruitless, and a commission of inquiry in 1788 report that:—"From these institutions the public receives very inadequate benefit; in many dioceses there are neither diocesan schools or school-houses, in many the houses are ruinous, and the masterships of the schools mere sinecures. In the thirty-four dioceses we find only twenty diocesan schoolmasters; of this number, six received their salaries but did not act; and of the remainder, very few kept such schools as in any respect answered the end of the institution. The sums now payable by the clergy for the support of these schools, amount to £616 yearly; but the whole of this is not paid."

The report of the Commissioners of Education Inquiry in 1809 was even less favorable. It states that "at no time do these schools appear to have fully answered the purposes of their institution, and the general benefit derived is far from corresponding with the intention of the Legislature, or even with the number of schools actually kept, or supposed to be so. Out of the whole number of dioceses, only ten are provided with school-houses in tolerable repair; in three others, the houses are either out of repair or otherwise insufficient; and the remainder are wholly unprovided and the masters either rent houses or are accommodated in other ways. The whole number of effective schools is only thirteen and the whole number of scholars does not exceed 380."

By an Act of 1813 a permanent Board was established, for the superintendence and control of endowed schools, under the name of the "Commissioners of Education in Ireland." This Board was composed of the Lord Primate, the Lord Chancellor, and the Archbishops of Dublin, Tuam, and Cashel, with their respective coadjutors; the Chief Justice of the King's Bench; the Secretary of the Lord Lieutenant; the Provost of Trinity College; the member chosen to Parliament for Trinity College; and also four bishops and six other proper and discreet persons, to be appointed by the Lord Lieutenant, and renewable at his pleasure. They were intrusted with very large powers of visiting and controlling the masters and other persons concerned in the management of the schools, and were authorized to make orders for the better regulation of the schools, which could be inforced through the instrumentality of the Court of Chancery. While the appointment of the masters remained as before, the Commissioners were enabled to dismiss them for misconduct.

The new Board, however, refrained from the exercise of their powers until expressly called upon by the Irish Government, about seven years afterwards, to digest a scheme for the management of these schools. In 1828 a plan was finally agreed upon by which twenty-seven dioceses were united into twelve districts, and the number of schools was thus limited to nineteen. From year to year they urged upon the Grand Juries the building of school-houses, and on the Lord Lieutenant the necessity of appointing masters to the vacant schools, and they apprized the masters and the public of the constitution of the schools, both as to the right of free admission, and as to their being open to persons of all religious denominations. But no effectual measures were taken to enforce any rules upon these subjects. The right of free admission remained in fact a nullity, being denied by the masters and only existing as a matter of patronage in their hands. Since 1833 it does not appear that the Commissioners have taken any steps to check the increasing decay and inefficiency of the schools.

The report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons in 1835, gives the condition of the schools and the reasons of their failure. But twelve schools were then in operation, of which but six had an average of more than twenty-five pupils in the five preceding years. "The dif-

ference of opinion as to the object of these schools, the rights of the public, and the obligations of the contributors, masters, and Commissioners, is injurious. It is not generally understood whether they are designed for gratuitous education, and open to all persuasions, or are classical boarding-schools preparatory to the University, principally intended for the upper classes; whether the Grand Juries, masters, or Commissioners, have a right to interfere; what is the nature of that right, &c. The collision of the parties tends to neutralize attempts at general or local improvement. The Lord Lieutenant will not appoint masters unless a salary be secured; the salary is refused by the clergy, unless the school be built by the Grand Jury; the Grand Jury refuses to build the school, unless the master stipulates to receive a certain number of free scholars; the master refuses to receive free scholars on compulsion of the Grand Jury; and the Commissioners will not, or can not, enforce the right either on the part of the Grand Jury or their own. The contributions from the clergy are collected in small sums, and the trouble of collection, with all its delay, irregularity, and confusion, is thrown on the master. There is no security for a good class of buildings. Of those in use, some seem not to have been intended for schools, and are situated often in the least eligible situations. The masters have too unlimited an authority. The Commissioners exercise no efficient superintendence; there is no constant inspection; there is no local committee. No specific rules are prescribed for their conduct. These schools have almost exclusively confined themselves to preparation for the learned professions. The commercial classes have found in them scanty means for the supply of their peculiar intellectual necessities. The actual course reduces itself to Greek, Latin, and a small proportion of the abstract sciences, with a little geography, history, &c."

At present there are fifteen schools in operation, with a total attendance of 804 pupils, among whom are thirty-eight Roman Catholics, thirty-four Protestant dissenters, and twenty-five free scholars. The average salary of the masters is £113. Only eight schools have houses suitable for the purpose, and in only six cases is a favorable report made of the state of instruction. The three schools at Cork, Londonderry, and Wexford, are the largest, receiving more than half of the whole number of scholars, and are in the most satisfactory condition. Though there is no law that precludes the appointment of a Catholic or a Presbyterian to a mastership, yet as a rule the masters are all clergymen of the United Church.

THE ROYAL FREE SCHOOLS.

The Royal Free Schools were projected by King James I. as a part of his scheme for the plantation of Ulster, in the north of Ireland, by which he set apart a portion of the escheated lands in the six counties included in that district, for the endowment of "one free school, at least, in each county, for the education of youth in learning and religion." The whole amount of forfeited lands is stated at about 400,000 acres, of which

100,000 were granted for church, school, and corporation lands. The first school was founded at Dungannon in 1614, and during the following twenty years the grants to the other schools were perfected by either James I. or Charles I. These endowments were nine in number, of which six are now in operation as grammar schools.

The Lord Deputy thus describes the condition of these schools in 1638:—"The schools, which might be a means to season the youth in virtue and religion, either ill provided, ill-governed in the most part, or which is worse, applied sometimes underhand to the maintenance of Popish schoolmasters; lands given to these charitable uses, and that in a bountiful proportion, especially by King James of ever blessed memory, dissipated, leased forth for little or nothing, concealed contrary to all conscience, and the excellent purposes of the founders; all the moneys raised for charitable uses, converted to private benefits." An Act shortly followed "to redress the misemployment of lands, &c., given to charitable uses." Still the estates were left in the hands of the master and subject to all the evils incident to temporary ownership. The Commissioners of 1791 reported the Armagh Royal School as the only one in a satisfactory state. They were of opinion that large salaries to schoolmasters were generally ruinous to schools. The schools had not answered the intentions of the founders and the benefits derived from them had been "totally inadequate to the expectations that might have been justly formed from their large endowments." Though they were free schools, yet out of 211 scholars in the six schools then existing, only thirty-eight were free pupils and these were day scholars, each of them costing the public above £100 annually.

In 1807 the condition of several of the schools had improved, especially those of Armagh and Dungannon, both of which schools are under the patronage of the Archbishop of Armagh, while the appointment to the remainder has always rested with the Lord Lieutenant, under the Crown. The total endowments amounted at that time to £5,800 per annum, the number of scholars being 360, of whom very few were instructed gratis. In 1813, as already stated, the Commissioners of Education were appointed, in whom the estates, with powers of leasing, were vested; and they were empowered to fix the salaries of the masters, apply the surplus to the school buildings, and to the foundation of free scholarships and exhibitions. The managements of these schools has constituted the chief part of the business of the Board up to the present time, though they have exercised their powers in a very imperfect manner.

With regard to free admissions, the subject has been left entirely optional with the master, except in the case of Armagh, while the masters generally deny the right and admit free scholars only as a matter of favor and convenience. In connection with the Armagh School, the question was made a subject of memorial to the Lord Lieutenant, in 1848, and the Commissioners consequently made regulations for the admission of ten free day scholars, to be selected by the master, with certain limitations

as to the residence and property qualifications of the parents. The Report recognizes the right of admission to these "Free Schools," without payment, independent of the choice or discretion of the master, and without limitation as to locality, religion, or property, and recommends the minimum number of free places to be fixed by statute, the greater number being awarded by competition at a public examination, but some being reserved to be given on grounds of poverty. At Enniskillen a number of school scholarships, as distinguished from free places, have been founded, with an allowance of £20 each towards education, maintenance, and clothing. Exhibitions at Trinity College have been established by the Commissioners in the schools of Armagh, Dungannon, and Enniskillen. The foundation of these exhibitions has been beneficial both to the schools and to the pupils. The examination for them consists of the Trinity College entrance course, which is purely classical, with two Greek plays added, and exercises in Latin and Greek verse. In 1842 the "Outlines of Sacred History" were also included, which was made the ground in the Dungannon School for compelling all the pupils to receive religious instruction. On this account, the Board, in 1848, made an order stating "that no course of religious instruction which would exclude persons of any religious persuasion, should be compulsory on any pupil who might be desirous of attending the Royal Schools."

These schools are, by their constitution, open to all religious persuasions, and have always been so considered; but Catholics and Presbyterians are generally averse to sending their children to them. The masters are all of the Church of England, usually clergymen, while the assistants are chosen from the laity.

The six schools now in existence have a total endowment of 21,334 acres of land, yielding an annual income of £5,747, of which £1,600 is expended in masters' salaries, £900 in salaries of assistants, £80 in school scholarships, £1,175 in college exhibitions, and the remainder in building, repairs, &c. The number of students enrolled is 311, (average attendance, 227,) of whom three are Catholic, nineteen Presbyterian, and four of other dissenting sects. The number of free pupils is forty-seven, deriving a benefit of about £10 each from the total endowments of about £6,000 a-year.

The Royal School at Armagh has enjoyed a higher reputation than that of any other school in Ireland. The condition of the buildings and dormitories, and the general internal arrangements are reported as very satisfactory, while the distinctions obtained by its pupils of late years at the University of Dublin are proof of the completeness of the course of instruction and the efficiency with which it is taught. It has been complained, however, that the instruction was exclusively for the higher members of society, and that the mercantile and middle classes were virtually excluded; that book-keeping, practical arithmetic, natural philosophy, and other courses of study suited to them, are not pursued. It is strictly a classical school—more so than the others of the class. The at-

tendance, though good, is much less than the school accommodation admits of.

Enniskillen School is the most richly endowed of all the Royal Schools and has attained a high state of efficiency. The instruction in the classics is excellent, but in the English branches is very unsatisfactory. Recent arrangements have been made for giving a good English education at reduced charges to those who do not desire instruction in classics.

In the Raphos School the classical course is combined with a commercial one, with a suitable staff of assistants, and the report as regards the state of instruction, the numbers attending, and the general discipline, is most favorable. The same may be said of the Dungannon School, The Cavan School, on the other hand, is reported as in a state of lamentable inefficiency, both as regards attendance, instruction, and general management. At Banagher the state of instruction is unsatisfactory and the buildings in bad repair. The schools have often suffered from the inefficiency of the masters, from old age, lunacy, or other causes, for which there was no remedy, the Commissioners having the power of removal only for misconduct.

ERASMUS SMITH'S SCHOOLS.

These schools were founded by Erasmus Smith, an alderman of London, who had obtained property in Ireland under the Act of Settlement during the Protectorate, and who in 1657 made a grant of a portion of his estates for the endowment of schools, though the charter was not obtained until 1669 under Charles II. The original intention had been to erect five grammar schools and to make provision at the University for those who were educated at them, but in order to secure a more liberal maintenance upon the schoolmasters and also to make some provision for clothing poor children and binding them as apprentices, by the charter of 1669 he founded only three schools, those at Drogheda, Tipperary, and Galway. The visitation and government of the schools was intrusted to a Board of thirty two Governors, with power of selecting their successors. The course of instruction was directed to be in writing and casting accounts, and as far as the pupils were capable, in the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew tongues, and they were to be fitted for the University if desired. The charter provided that they should be free schools for twenty poor children dwelling within two miles of the school, to be named by the founder or Governors, and for all the children of the tenants of Erasmus Smith, without limitation. The masters were authorized to receive entrance money for every scholar except those thus entitled to free admission. With respect to religious instruction, the provisions of the charter were very explicit and deemed by the founder of great importance. "My end in founding the three schools was to propagate the Protestant faith according to the Scriptures, avoiding all superstition. Therefore it is the command of his Majesty to catechise the children out of Primate Ussher's catechism and expound the same unto them, which I humbly desire may be observed upon the penalty of forfeiting theire (the mas-

ters') places." The laws also provide that the masters shall publicly read the Scriptures, pray, and catechise the children. The masters were to be appointed by the Governors, and were to be approved, as well as the ushers, by the bishop of the diocese, and to sign the first two canons of the United Church. The surplus of rents above £300 was to be expended in beautifying the school-houses, in the payment of ushers, in founding a Hebrew or other lectureship in Trinity College, in binding out poor children as apprentices under Protestant masters, and in clothing poor children in the grammar schools.

Erasmus Smith survived the foundation of this endowment for upwards of twenty years, yet even in his lifetime these schools were far from successful. In 1682 he thus writes to the Governors:—"My Lords, my designe is not to reflect upon any, only I give my judgment why those schooles are so consumptive, which was, and is, and will be, (if not prevented,) the many Popish schooles, theire neighbours, which, as succors, do starve the tree. If parents will exclude theire children because prayers, catechism, and exposition is commanded, I can not help it, for to remove that barre is to make them seminaries of Popery. I beseech you to command him that shall be presented and approved by your honours to observe them that decline those duties, and expell them, which will obleege me, my Lords and Gentlemen."

We will here refer to the Act of William III., of 1695, to restrain foreign education, which enacts that "he that goes himself or sends any other beyond seas to be trained up in Popery, &c., or conveys or sends over money, &c., for their maintenance, or as charity for relief of a religious house, and is thereof convicted, be disabled to sue in law or equity, or to be guardian, executor, or administrator, or take a legacy or deed of gift, or bear office, and forfeit goods, and also lands for life." It then recites that "it is found by experience that tolerating and conniving at Papists keeping schools or instructing youth in literature, is one great reason of many of the natives of this kingdom continuing ignorant of the principles of true religion, and strangers to the Scriptures, and of their neglecting to conform themselves to the laws and statutes of this realm, and of their not using the English habit or language, to the great prejudice of the public weal thereof," and enacts "that no person whatsoever of the Popish religion shall publickly teach school, or instruct youth in learning within this realm, from henceforth, except only the children or others under the guardianship of the master or mistress of such private house or family, upon pain of twenty pounds, and also being committed to prison, without bail or mainprize, for the space of three months for every such offence." In 1709 an Act with yet severer penalties was passed, providing that whatever person of the Popish religion "shall publicly teach school, or shall instruct youth in learning in any private house within this realm, or shall be entertained to instruct youth in learning as usher, undermaster or assistant, by any Protestant schoolmaster," should be punished as if he were a Popish regular clergyman,

i. e., be subject to imprisonment and transportation, while a second offense was punished as high treason. The recital in this act shows that Protestant teachers, even during the operation of the penal laws, found it necessary to employ Roman Catholic assistants to encourage persons of that persuasion to send children to their schools. The same disinclination on the part of Roman Catholics, to allow their children to be instructed in schools where the teachers are exclusively Protestants, continues to the present day.

At an early period the Governors, finding a surplus in their hands, established the practice of granting exhibitions to poor scholars in Trinity College, and an Act of Parliament in 1723 empowered them to found a lectureship in oratory and history, and another in natural and experimental philosophy, and also three fellowships. The Erasmus Smith exhibitioners were to have instruction at these lectures gratis, to have a preference in elections for the lectureships, and in the election of junior fellows, next after the scholars, and to hold some other privileges. Among other provisions of this act was one authorizing the founding of one or more English schools in Ireland. The endowment of English schools, though not commenced for nearly a century afterwards, has within the last fifty years become the principal object to which the funds of the school estates have been applied.

In 1791 the income of the estates had increased to upwards of £4,200 a-year, while the disbursements were only about £2,800. The Commissioners of that year notice three of the schools as being at that time in a flourishing condition, and are of the opinion that the Governors had executed their trust with fidelity to the intention of the founder, and had used great care in managing the affairs of the endowment. They recommend the applying the surplus funds to the founding a professional academy in Dublin, for instruction in mathematical learning, and the cognate sciences; in chemistry and its application to arts and manufactures; and in natural history; to prepare soldiers, seamen, and merchants, in the business of their respective departments; to give a general account of the manners, customs, and governments of different nations, with a short abstract of their history; and to teach some of the modern languages, particularly French, Italian, and German. They also advise the promotion of boys from the grammar schools to this academy. This recommendation was never carried into effect, and the surplus rents continued to accumulate until 1807, when they reached the sum of £35,000.

Between 1808 and 1815, the Governors applied this large surplus to the founding of English schools, to the number of sixty-nine. Between 1839 and 1843, immediately following the formation of the Church Education Society for Ireland, fifty-two other English schools were established. Fifteen of these schools have ceased through the faulty construction of the leases under which the school sites were held, whereby the lands have reverted to the original grantors, with the loss of over £6,000 that had been expended upon buildings and improvements. Other

schools of the same character have been established at different times, so that the whole number of English schools now under the Governors is 140, in 117 of which the salaries of the masters are paid by them, while in the remaining twenty-three the site and school-house are the only endowment.

In respect to the present condition of these schools, they fall far short of what might justly be expected from the amount of their endowments, and from the principles of administration laid down by their founder. Indeed, the purpose and regulations of the founder respecting the schools seem to be little heeded and scarcely known by the masters, the people, or even the Governors. The grammar schools, which were the sole object of the endowment, have been made by the Governors secondary to the English schools, which can hardly be said to have been contemplated in the original plan. Thus in eleven years and a-half only £10,000 has been expended upon the grammar schools, while the expenditure upon the English schools in the same period was £36,000. The appropriations to the grammar schools has been so limited that the exhibitions have been allowed to remain at the small sum of £8 and £6 a-year, though competing with the Royal School exhibitions of £30 and £50 a-year. Hence, of the fifty exhibitions at Trinity College that might have been obtained by pupils of the grammar schools in ten years, through want of sufficient stimulus to exertion, only ten have been awarded—in some years none at all. Thus the character of the schools has suffered and the obvious intention of Erasmus Smith to favor middle class education and to enable clever boys of the poorer classes to rise and attain even a University education, has been defeated. Indeed, the extent to which the Governors have neglected the grammar schools is remarkable. The masters are left almost entirely uncontrolled; the schools are never inspected; the terms for pupils are undefined; the course of instruction is not prescribed; and there is little to distinguish these schools from other private schools, except that the receipt of a considerable salary and the use of buildings and grounds give to the masters such advantages as should put down all competition. As respects free pupils, it appears that the Governors have almost entirely neglected to exercise their right of nomination, and have not made known to the tenants of the estates the existence of the right of their children to free admission. The rules of the charter as to religious instruction are not observed in any of the grammar schools; the provision requiring that instruction should be given in the catechism of Archbishop Ussher has been systematically violated, and indeed, at the time of the examination by the Commissioners, the masters seemed to be entirely unaware of any such rules.

In the four grammar schools now in operation (at Drogheda, Ennis, Tipperary, and Galway) there are accommodations for 170 boarders and 457 additional day-scholars, while the total number on the rolls is but 160 and the average attendance 116. Of these, twenty three are Roman Catholics and one Presbyterian. The whole number of free pupils on

the rolls is thirty. At the Galway school, with buildings erected at an expense of nearly £9,000 and most of the people in its neighborhood entitled, as tenants upon the school estate, to free education as a matter of right, the whole number of pupils is but twenty, who are all day-scholars, and of these but eight are free. At Tipperary also there is an excellent school-house, yet there is but a single boarder, and the number of day-scholars is but thirteen, of whom three are free.

The English schools, to which the Governors have devoted so much of their funds, do not disclose a much more satisfactory management. Many of these are miserably inefficient, owing to the incompetency of the poorly paid teachers, the inferiority of school-books, the exclusive character of the instruction, inadequate inspection, and other causes. With regard to the religious instruction in these schools, the catechism of the United Church is legally required to be taught in the sixty-nine which were formed between 1808 and 1815, and the reading of the Scriptures in the fifty-two established from 1839 to 1843. But the reading of the Bible is not enforced upon all the pupils, and the catechism is taught to children of the United Church in all the schools.

Of the 140 English schools, forty are for boys and thirty-five for girls exclusively. The school-rooms are sufficient for 14,142 scholars; the number enrolled in the year 1855–6 was 7,110—average attendance, 4,241. Of those enrolled, 875 were Roman Catholics and 1,420 Presbyterians.

The net annual income of the Erasmus Smith fund, applicable to schools, is about £7,500, and from the report of the Commissioners it shows an uncommon and curious instance of the management of a large fund for a series of years in a very loose and unbusinesslike manner, yet without malversation or actual loss of money.

INCORPORATED SOCIETY'S SCHOOLS.

In 1733, the Incorporated Society for Promoting English Protestant Schools was established in compliance with an address from the principal nobility, gentry, and clergy of Ireland, for the instruction of children of Roman Catholics and other poor natives of Ireland, in English, writing, and arithmetic; in husbandry and housewifery, or in trades, manufactures, and other manual occupations; and in the Scriptures and the principles of the Protestant Established religion. The Society was also to provide for the support of such poor children as it should judge proper, until they should be fit to be apprenticed to trades. In the pursuit of this object, the Society adopted the principle of separating the children from their parents, and confining them entirely to large boarding-schools. It was at first supported chiefly by the promoters and by an annual endowment of £1,000 a-year from King George II. In 1745, the Irish Parliament passed an act, which was for many years renewed, compelling hawkers and peddlers to take out licenses, and granted the duties thus arising, amounting annually to about £1,100 annually, to the support of these schools.

In 1749, the Incorporated Society was made the guardian of all begging children, being intrusted with the power of having them taken up and conveyed to charter schools to be supported there until further order of the Society. In 1769, there were fifty-two charter schools and five nurseries, with 2,100 children clothed and maintained. From their foundation until 1784, they continued in great favor with both the Irish Parliament and the Government.

John Howard, the distinguished philanthropist, in his visit to Ireland in 1784, discovered great inaccuracies in the statements of the Society as to the number of their pupils, and serious abuses existing in their institutions, the condition of the children in general being wretched, both physically and mentally. He published a very unfavorable account, which led to considerable controversy, and the state of the schools was subsequently brought before a committee of the Irish House of Commons, resulting in a complete corroboration of Mr. Howard's statements. It appeared that of the establishments—forty-four in number—not more than five or six were properly managed. In most of them, the instruction, cleanliness, and health of the children had been most grossly neglected, and in many, they were half starved, half naked, and covered with cutaneous disorders, the effects of filth and negligence. In 1791, the condition of the schools had been so far improved that but three were reported unfavorable, two of which were only so in respect to the clothing of the children. The fund for the support of the Society amounted at that time, including parliamentary grants, to over £20,000. The total number of children was 1,718.

This visit of Howard to Ireland greatly accelerated a change of policy in regard to the instruction of Catholics. The Statute of William III., after continuing in force ninety years, was so far relaxed in 1781 as to allow persons professing the Popish religion to teach schools, and in 1792 the statute was wholly repealed. In the following year was passed the Roman Catholic Relief Act, which removed all incapacities in regard to schools to which Roman Catholics, as such, had until then been subject.

In the year 1803, Protestants were admitted to the schools of the Incorporated Society for the first time since 1775. In 1808, the number of children had increased to 2,187, and the funds of the Society to £30,150. The nurseries were still continued, and the system of "transplanting" children, or separating them from their parents, still prevailed. In 1820, it was decided that the Society was not at liberty to receive Roman Catholics in their day-schools without instructing them in the Protestant religion, and after 1825 it had become so difficult to induce Catholic children to attend that the nature of the schools was from that time changed, and from being schools for the conversion of Catholics they became schools for the education of members of the United Church. The parliamentary grants were also diminished from £19,500 in 1826 to £5,750 in 1832, when they were finally withdrawn.

In 1839, a plan was adopted by which children were appointed to the schools after a competitive examination. This appointment is restricted to children who come from some of the districts in which the Society has estates, and have attended for at least one year at a school in which the Scriptures are daily read. The course of instruction has also undergone a change. Industrial instruction, which was one of the objects for which the Society was established, has almost entirely ceased, and the system of apprenticeships has also been discontinued. The nurseries and system of transplanting children have been abandoned, and also the custom of giving bounties to well-conducted apprentices, and of giving marriage portions. The system of competitive examination has been found to be beneficial not only in securing a good class of pupils, but in affording a great stimulus to the Scriptural schools in the several districts of selection. In 1843, a further step in the same direction was taken by converting Santry into a training institution, and by applying the system of competitive examination to the reëlection of pupils who had completed a period of over four years in the boarding-schools to a scholarship of three years at this institution at Santry. So great is the demand for the services of those that have undergone this training that two or three times as many pupils might be provided for if the institution possessed the requisite capacity for so many. One pupil is in the same way selected from each of the day-schools of the Society. The subjects of examination are certain portions of Scripture, the Church catechism, and Scripture references; reading, writing, the rudiments of English grammar, the geography of Europe and Palestine, and arithmetic. The Society award a special certificate to the schoolmaster of each school from which a pupil has been selected. The condition of the day-schools, however, is in most cases reported as very unsatisfactory, or as satisfactory only as elementary schools. The system of selection to the boarding-schools by competitive examination is found in this respect to work prejudicially, the master being tempted to devote too much time to a few clever boys, to the neglect of the larger number who have no chance of being successful.

Much credit is due to the Incorporated Society for the improvement that has been made in their schools since 1825. The Commissioners report their schools as the only ones examined by them in which the free places were all filled up and all given on a system that secured to those intended to be benefited the full and fair enjoyment of their rights. A school has recently been established by the Society in the city of Dublin, of an entirely different character from that of previous schools. It is intended to afford to the middle classes of Dublin an opportunity of procuring on reasonable terms a superior English and mercantile education, with instruction in modern languages.

The number of the Incorporated Society's Boarding Institutions is eight, of which six are for boys and two for girls. The number of enrolled pupils in 1855 was 451—the average attendance, 318. The num-

ber of free pupils was 216. All but six were of the United Church. There are also eleven day-schools, four for boys and three for girls exclusively. The accommodations are sufficient for 1,621 pupils; the number on the rolls in 1855 was 420, the average attendance, 289. Number of free pupils, 214—Roman Catholics, 49—Presbyterians, 81.

The total net annual income of the Society amounts to about £8,200, derivable from the rents of 17,000 acres of land and the income of £98,000 stock in the English and Irish funds.

SCHOOLS OF THE ASSOCIATION FOR DISCOUNTENANCING VICE.

In 1792 the Association for Discountenancing Vice and Promoting the Knowledge and Practice of the Christian Religion was established, with an annual parliamentary grant of £800, which was continued until 1827, and with assistance obtained from private individuals contributed considerable sums towards the building of school-houses and the salaries of teachers. The schools were founded principally for the education of children of the Established Church, but were open to children of all religious persuasions, provided they conformed to the rules, one of which required that all should read the Scriptures. In 1825, there were 226 schools in connection with this Society, with an attendance of above 12,600 pupils, nearly as many of whom were Roman Catholics as Protestants. After the discontinuance of the parliamentary grant, the Society gradually discontinued its assistance and finally gave up all connection with the schools. Most of the schools, however, are still in existence, carried on under the deeds of endowment, which were made to the ministers and church-wardens. The appointment of the schoolmaster and regulation of the school are vested in the minister of the parish, and the children of the United Church are required to be taught the Church catechism.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE COMMISSIONERS OF EDUCATION.

The Commissioners of Education in Ireland, who were constituted in 1813 and intrusted with the management of the Diocesan and Royal free schools, were also empowered to visit all endowed schools—most of the exclusive schools, that is, schools where pupils of only one religious persuasion had the right of admission, or where the trustees, being of one persuasion, had power to enforce instruction in the tenets of their religion on all the pupils, including the Erasmus Smith and Incorporated Society's schools, alone being excepted.

The powers of the Commissioners as visitors are most ample, and they may also make orders for the better regulation and management of the schools, and through the Court of Chancery remove trustees and take the funds under their own care. Besides the Diocesan and Royal free schools, the schools of private foundation under the care of the Commissioners are twenty-three, of which sixteen are grammar schools, with an annual income of about £2,700. The number of scholars in the grammar schools is 340, of whom 22 are free, 27 Roman Catholic, and 31 Protes-

tant Dissenters. In the English schools there are 508 pupils upon the rolls, of whom 447 are free scholars, 244 Roman Catholic, and 86 Presbyterian.

The condition of the majority of these schools is far from satisfactory. The Commissioners have almost entirely neglected to exercise the powers of supervision vested in them, and have entirely omitted to provide for the protection of a large number of endowments falling under their jurisdiction. In several schools the right of free admission is denied; in all it is left without regulation or public announcement. The buildings are in some cases in bad repair, and in few instances is the instruction given reported as satisfactory.

The inefficiency of the Board of Commissioners is due in a great degree to the peculiarities of its constitution. Composed for the most part of *ex-officio* members, who are already charged with onerous duties which necessarily absorb the greater part of their time; of such numbers as to prevent a proper feeling of individual responsibility; receiving no compensation for their services and so little interested in their duties as to render it difficult to secure the attendance at its meetings of the small quorum of three necessary for the transaction of bu iness, the management has necessarily been left too much in the hands of subordinate officers, and a system of routine has been tolerated entirely incompatible with the proper supervision and effective control of the schools. The sphere of their action has been contracted to the narrowest limits, and the performance of even those duties which they have assumed has been but imperfect.

KILDARE-PLACE SOCIETY SCHOOLS.

In 1811, the Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in Ireland, commonly called the Kildare-Place Society, was established. This Society was composed of persons of various religious persuasions, and their object was to support schools in which the appointment of teachers and the admission of scholars should be uninfluenced by religious distinctions. The Scriptures were to be read by all the scholars, but catechisms and all books of religious controversy were to be excluded. To this Society the support of new schools for the poorer classes was intrusted by Parliament, and an annual grant of £6,980 was made in 1814. This grant was increased to £10,000 in 1821, to £22,000 in 1824, and to £25,000 in 1827, but was altogether discontinued in 1832. The number of schools increased from eight in 1817, to 1,490 in 1825, and the number of pupils from 557 to 100,000 in the same time. The Society devoted its funds to the encouragement of schools by inspection, by publishing and supplying books, by training masters, and allowing annual gratuities to them. Only a small portion of its funds was devoted to grants for building.

At first the Society appears to have had some success in gaining the confidence of the people, and its schools were attended by Roman Catholics in considerable numbers. But in 1825 very strong feelings of hostility

had been aroused in consequence, chiefly, of its affording aid to schools under the control of other institutions, or persons, who were supposed to interfere with the religious belief of the pupils. This finally led to the withdrawal of the parliamentary grant and the discontinuance of the operations of the Society. It seems to have taken no systematic steps for protecting the endowments that remained vested in it, and but a small proportion of them continue at the present time.

CHRISTIAN BROTHERS' SCHOOLS.

The association of "The Brothers of the Christian Schools in Ireland" was originated by Edmond Rice, of Waterford, who, in 1802, submitted a plan of the proposed society to Pope Pius VII., by whom it was eventually approved and confirmed in 1825. The knowledge communicated in the schools of this society embrace not only reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and book-keeping, but also an acquaintance with such branches of the mathematics as are suited to the tastes and talents of the pupils and to the stations in life they are destined to occupy. Geometry, mensuration, drawing, and mechanics become special objects of attention. In teaching, the most approved methods of communicating knowledge have been carefully reduced to practice. But it is to instruction in religion that this institution is chiefly devoted, and to this object the members direct their main energies. The teachers are selected and trained and are placed under a strict system of organization and discipline.

The Christian Brothers' Schools have been considerably extended, and were stated to number, in 1857, 15,000 pupils in Ireland and 3,500 in England. Some of the largest of the schools are liberally endowed, but the entire amount of endowments is very moderate. The condition of the schools is reported as very satisfactory, almost without exception, and their efficiency as compared with many other schools in Ireland is remarkable. This is ascribed to the extraordinary personal influence exerted by the teachers over their pupils, to their devotion in the work, and the fact that they have been remarkably well trained for the business of instruction, being not only good scholars, but having acquired great aptitude in the art of teaching and no ordinary skill in devising the most efficient methods of organization and discipline.

SCHOOLS UNDER THE BOARD OF NATIONAL EDUCATION.

In 1824, the House of Commons instituted a Commission of Inquiry into the educational institutions of Ireland maintained wholly or in part by public funds, who were also directed to recommend a plan of education for all classes in Ireland. The Commissioners conducted their inquiries from 1824 to 1828 and made several reports, which were followed by the withdrawal of the parliamentary grant from the Incorporated Society and a total change in the policy of that Society in the management of its schools, and afterwards by the withdrawal of grants from the Society for Discountenancing Vice, the Kildare-Place Society, and some other

grants. The results of these inquiries were submitted in 1828 to a select committee of the House, who passed a series of resolutions in favor of the establishment of a system of education in Ireland, in which no attempt should be made to influence or disturb the peculiar religious tenets of any sect or denomination of Christians. Pupils of all persuasions were to be provided with literary instruction in common, and every facility afforded for their religious instruction separately. Grants should be made through a Board appointed by Government, and applied in aid of local contributions for the foundation and support of schools; and to secure the efficiency of teachers and proper management of the schools, it was recommended that the qualifications of teachers should be tested by examination in a model school under the control of Government, and that there should be a general system of inspection of the schools under the Board. These recommendations were followed by the formation of the "Board of National Education" in 1832.

These "National" Schools are open to persons of every religious persuasion and no pupil is required to attend at any religious exercise of which his parents do not approve. It is also provided that sufficient opportunity shall be afforded to the pupils of different persuasions to receive religious instruction separately at appointed times. In 1833, the number of these schools was 789, attended by 107,042 pupils, and assisted by a parliamentary grant of £25,000. In 1856, the number of schools was 5,245, the pupils, 560,184, and the parliamentary grant, £227,641. About 1,500 of these schools are vested with school-sites and buildings, but few are otherwise endowed. The National Schools are, for the most part, efficient, owing to their constant inspection, the training and selection of the teachers, and the excellence of the books, which are supplied at cheap rates. In some districts they are under the management of the parish priests and exclusively attended by Roman Catholic children, and are often regarded and spoken of as "the Catholic schools."

CHURCH EDUCATION SOCIETY'S SCHOOLS.

The Church Education Society for Ireland was established in 1839. Its objects are to assist existing schools and establish new ones on an improved system, "for the purpose of affording to the children of the Church, instruction in the Holy Scriptures and in the catechism and other formularies of the Church, under the direction of the Bishops and parochial clergy, and under the tuition of teachers who are members of the United Church of England and Ireland." The Society supplies its schools with the Bible in the authorized version, the use of which is required in the daily instruction of every pupil who is capable of reading, and with other books and school requisites, and also assists in furnishing and repairing school-houses, but their permanent endowment is not one of its objects. The schools are open to all children whatsoever belonging to the parish in which the school is situated and having the minister's approbation for attending it, and no child is excluded on account

of poverty. The Society has also established a model and training school for the education of teachers.

The schools of this Society are reported as for the most part very inefficient. The school course, even were it accurately followed, (which it never is,) falls very far behind the National school course, the instruction given to each class in the parish schools being much inferior to that in the corresponding class of a National school. The inspection of the schools amounts to but little, as the day of inspection is always known for a considerable time beforehand, and express notice is given to master and pupils. Owing to the smallness of the salaries, the male teachers are almost invariably the parish clerks of their respective districts, who are usually very illiterate, and the female teachers are their wives. The school-books are of an inferior description, being in fact the old stock of the Kildare-Place Society, every way out of date and behind the time.

CLASSICAL SCHOOLS OF PRIVATE FOUNDATION.

Among these may be mentioned the Roman Catholic Diocesan Seminaries, which exist in nearly every diocese in Ireland. Their object is to train up pupils for the priesthood, but with that course of education is combined one suited to fit the pupils for secular pursuits. These seminaries, in consequence of the smallness of the funds by which they are supported, supply to a very inadequate extent the means of education to the middle classes of the Roman Catholics. The chief of these schools are those at Athlone, Carlow, Kilkenny, and Waterford, but the report of the Commissioners is not sufficiently complete to permit a decision in regard to their general efficiency.

The Belfast Academy, founded in 1785, and the Belfast Royal Academical Institution, founded in 1808, were the result of two efforts to establish great intermediate schools by local subscription. Large sums were raised and expended in purchasing sites and erecting buildings. The system of instruction pursued is based on the principle of the division of labor adopted in the Scotch Universities, each master having his own department and the parents being free to choose the particular department in which they wish their sons to be educated. The efficiency of these seminaries has been much crippled by want of funds for repairs and other expenses, and in the Royal Institution by controversies between the different parties of the Presbyterian Church. In the Belfast Academy, the buildings are reported as dilapidated and ill-suited for school purposes, though the state of instruction is still satisfactory. The Royal Institute has six masters, the classical department numbering 82 pupils; the mathematical, 145; English, 134; writing, 89; French, 52; drawing, 19.

SCHOOLS OF THE SOCIETY OF FRIENDS.

The schools of the Society of Friends are all under the care of the Quarterly Meetings of the Society, the system of religious instruction is that adopted by the Society, and all the pupils are brought up in the religious

principles of the Society. Five schools are mentioned as possessed of endowments, so classified as to suit the wants of pupils from different conditions of society, and attended by 108 boys and 49 girls. In none of them does the course of instruction include the classics beyond the elements of Latin—but embraces the useful departments of an English education, and such female accomplishments as are consistent with the rules of the Society.

The Friends' schools are remarkable for the neatness, order, cleanliness, economy, and attention to health, which prevail in them, for the businesslike management of the trust funds, the judicious expenditure of the income, and the zealous and efficient nature of the local supervision exercised by the members of the committees. The graduation of the charges in proportion to the means of the parent indicates a kind and watchful care in securing the greatest benefit from the endowment to those most in need of receiving it.

OTHER SCHOOLS.

Numerous other schools were more or less fully examined and reported upon by the Royal Commissioners, embracing various grades of English schools in Dublin, Cork, and many other parts of Ireland, of which, with rare exceptions, a sufficiently correct account can be given in few words. Legacies and endowments, oftentimes liberal in amount, have wasted away under the mismanagement, neglect, or misappropriations of trustees, or through the expenses attending years of litigation, the wishes of benefactors have been forgotten or disregarded, and the schools themselves that remain, without supervision or proper management, and in the hands of poorly paid and incompetent teachers, are in far too many cases inefficient and unsatisfactory.

The Protestant Orphan Society is the great agency for placing out the orphan children of Protestant parents. The children are placed by the Society under the care of respectable Protestant families, residing in country parishes in the county of Wicklow, within a convenient distance from some Scriptural school and parish church. With these they remain, subject to the superintendence of the parochial clergyman and the systematic inspection of the Committee, until they reach the age of twelve or thirteen years. In the year 1856 there were four hundred orphans provided for in this manner. After the above age, the children are directly apprenticed or are transferred to the Society's Boarding-House in Dublin, for a short period, where it is intended that they shall receive a more extended education, until apprenticed or put out to service. It is reported that this system as pursued with the younger children is attended with eminent success, and that the kind of domestic life thus afforded to them fosters their religious and moral education, without interfering with their intellectual training. This plan, while it avoids the evils incident to the boarding-school system, is also found to be more economical in practice. The report of the boarding-house, however, is unfavorable, both as regards the quality of instruction afforded,

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The aggregate value of the school endowments, as already stated, amounts at present to about £68,500 per annum. Under better management, the revenues might in many cases have been increased and losses which have been incurred might have been avoided. Great negligence has been shown in the care of the records relating to the endowments; charters and title deeds have been in many cases lost, and schedules of them appear to have been but seldom prepared. The management of the estates at present, however, under some of the Boards, is in general careful and judicious; under others much negligence has been shown in some respects. The accounts of school endowments are, in general, ill-kept, because they are imperfectly audited. This office is seldom committed to persons sufficiently well acquainted with money matters and accounts to be able to perform it in a strictly methodical manner. The Commissioners close their remarks upon this subject thus:—"We are convinced that the willingness of benevolent persons to make charitable donations must be very much abated unless they receive assurance that the State will watch over the execution of their intentions and the safe-keeping of the trust funds."

3. *Instruction and Discipline.*—The course of instruction adopted in the Grammar Schools may be said to comprehend the subjects usually taught to scholars preparing to enter the Universities. In this course classical and mathematical studies preponderate, comparatively little attention being paid to English literature, modern languages, or the sciences of observation and experiment. Of late, however, several causes have conspired to turn the attention of schoolmasters to subjects which they had previously overlooked. The Commissioners of Education have founded exhibitions in Trinity College in connection with some of the Royal Schools and prescribed such a course for the candidates as would test their proficiency, not merely in the subjects appointed for the entrance examination, but in English composition, history, and other branches of what is called an English education. This has given rise to a wholesome rivalry among the pupils in the different Royal Schools, and certainly produced a good effect in promoting studies that were formerly almost neglected. The Universities themselves have likewise given a powerful impulse to these studies by establishing new classes of honors, designed to reward the successful pursuit of them. In addition to this influence bearing upon scholars intended for a university career, a new order of things was introduced by the establishment of competitive examinations for admission into the public service, both military and civil. In this examination the English language, literature, and history hold a prominent place, the languages, history, and geography of the continental countries are admitted, and chemistry, physical science, and natural

history are also included. The most intelligent masters of Grammar Schools speedily perceived the bearing of this reform upon the subject of school management and endeavored to make such arrangements as to secure to their pupils a fair chance of obtaining the prizes offered for competition. Perhaps these movements should be referred to a common source—the growth and diffusion of a belief in the necessity of enlarging the foundations of existing school systems.

But with reference to the present state of instruction, it certainly falls below the level that ought to be maintained. While in some of the Royal Schools very efficient instruction in Greek and Latin is imparted and properly qualified assistants are employed to teach the other branches, and in the boarding-schools under the Incorporated Society a well arranged course of English and mathematical study is carefully taught and considerable proficiency attained by the foundation scholars, who possess more than average ability, having gained admission through a competitive examination, yet the inferior condition of the Diocesan schools and the low state of education in other institutions is sufficiently evident. So of the primary schools the report is far from favorable, though among them there is found the greatest possible difference both as regards the character and the efficiency of the means of instruction. In the number of well managed primary schools are those under the management of the National Board, the large schools of the Christian Brothers, and some of the Erasmus Smith English schools, but of the whole number of endowed schools of this class the proportion is very small in which the instruction can be considered very satisfactory. "Great, indeed, would be the advantages diffused amongst the poorer classes by a school in which reading, writing, and the elementary rules of arithmetic were tolerably well taught. But we can not report that the advantages even of this scanty instruction are generally brought home to the cottages of the poor in due accordance with the generous intentions of those persons who have given or bequeathed money for the endowment of schools."

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and the general condition of the establishment. Several Roman Catholic charitable bodies have followed the same mode of providing for their orphans.

GENERAL RESULTS OF THE INQUIRY.

1. *Condition of Endowments.*—The number of endowed schools, aside from the National Schools, amounts to 1,321. The estimated annual value of the school premises is £14,615; the net annual income from the lands (75,600 acres) is £37,564; and that arising from trust funds is £16,391—the aggregate revenue being £68,571 per annum. The number of schools supported by these endowments is 1,321. The annual value of the 1,507 school sites belonging to National schools is £7,892. The total number of endowed schools in operation is therefore 2,828, with permanent endowments amounting in the aggregate to £76,468.

The great proportion of small endowments is a marked feature. Many of them are in their present state inadequate for carrying out the educational purposes they were designed to promote, and the inevitable result shows itself in an unsatisfactory state of the school premises, or of the instruction, or of both. Hence, although the aggregate value of such endowments is very considerable, the influence exerted by them on the education of the people is far below what might be expected from the total amount thus appropriated. The insecurity of the endowments appears to be a circumstance of very frequent occurrence. This is generally due either to the neglect or to the ignorance of the trustees, and has occasionally been the cause of serious loss. It arises very frequently from the great difficulty, often amounting to an impossibility, of obtaining correct information as to bequests, and the imperfect manner in which wills, grants, and other documents are preserved for the benefit of and made accessible to the inhabitants of the localities chiefly concerned in the endowments.

2. *Superintendence and Management.*—The care of charities committed to the administration of private trustees is most precarious. Persons interested in education engage in schemes intended to promote it. These are carried on with zeal and success during their lifetime and, perhaps, by their immediate successors whom they appoint to continue the work they have commenced. It is impossible for them to insure a continued succession of duly-qualified trustees. Thus, the management of the charity passes, before long, into the hands of persons who take no interest in its operation or are actually incapable of managing it aright. The very nature of the trusts to be executed become by degrees less generally and less exactly known; and in many instances the loss of documents illustrating the objects and history of the foundation, sometimes even the disappearance of its essential muniments, the charter, will, or deed, by which the endowment was first instituted, completes the series of causes which render it a prey to abuse or neglect. It might be supposed that schools committed to the care of public Boards, including

members who hold prominent places in society, would be secured against these dangers. The results of the inquiry of the Commissioners into the working hitherto of such bodies, do not assure us of their efficiency. They appear to have generally neglected that precaution, without which all attempts to manage schools must be unsuccessful. They have failed to organize and keep up a proper system of visitation and inspection. This omission and the inadequacy of endowments are the fundamental causes of nearly all the evils that are found to exist. Many of the members of these Boards charged with the superintendence of the endowed schools are named *ex-officio*, as holding offices of dignity and responsibility, and are already charged with onerous duties occupying nearly all their time and thoughts. Persons thus circumstanced can not pay such continuous and regular attention to the business of a charity as is required for its efficient management. The number of persons constituting these Boards is also, in some cases, calculated to weaken the sense of individual responsibility, which is the less definite as all the members hold a purely honorary office. And yet again changes for the better that might otherwise be attempted, are neglected on account of the amount of stamp duties, court fees, and other expenses, and the vexatious delay and trouble attendant upon the necessary legal processes.

The governing bodies being indisposed or not well fitted to exercise the function of visitation, it became the more necessary that they should institute efficient means of inspection through the agency of paid officers. This has been either left undone, or the means provided have fallen short of the exigencies of the service. The Commissioners of Education employ no permanent inspectors and have very sparingly exercised the ample powers of visitation committed to them by Parliament. The grammar schools under the Board of Erasmus Smith have been left wholly without inspection or visitation. The Board has appointed a clergyman to inspect their English schools, but it is impossible for him to perform this duty satisfactorily. The visitation of the boarding-schools of the Incorporated Society is very efficient, but its success is due to the zeal and ability of the gentlemen who at present take an active part in managing the affairs of the Society, and its continuance is not therefore to be depended upon. The inspection of the primary schools under this Society is not so favorable, and with the exception of those schools that have the advantage of being visited by the officers of the National Board, very few other schools enjoy the benefit of an adequate inspection. It might be supposed that the superintendence exercised by persons, and especially clergymen, resident in the neighborhood of the schools, would compensate this want, and the founders of charities seem to have placed much confidence in the sufficiency of such control, but experience does not justify these expectations. Local superintendents are more liable to be misled by personal or party feelings, are too frequently restrained by an unwillingness to offend a neighbor, and are also generally wanting in that special experience in educational matters which the governors of schools ought to possess.

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raphy, as regards not only the poorer but the middle classes, have been strikingly manifested in the results of the examinations held by the Civil Service Commissioners. They state in their First Report, "that, although the range of examination includes, in some instances, Latin, or a modern foreign language, history, geography, &c., the great majority of rejections have been occasioned, not by ignorance of these subjects, but by inability to spell with ordinary accuracy. The failures, moreover, have not been errors in words of rare occurrence, or technical character, but discreditable mistakes in those of every-day use." Out of a list of 185 rejected candidates, forty-one were refused certificates on the ground of spelling alone, and twenty-three for mistakes in spelling combined with bad writing; while deficiencies of the same sort entered into nearly all the cases of rejection on other grounds.

But the deficiencies in the higher branches of an English education are still more striking. There is a prevailing want of sound instruction in the meanings, derivation, and composition of words and a very general neglect of exercises in the grammatical analysis of sentences. These fundamental defects are not only the chief causes of bad reading, but preclude the possibility of attaining a correct style of speaking and writing. The Civil Service Commissioners, notwithstanding the easy form given by them to the test of proficiency in English composition, found but few instances in which readiness was shown in composing even an ordinary letter. In geography, the inefficient practice prevails of teaching merely by rote or from books. The geography of Great Britain and Ireland, even, are greatly neglected, while the instruction in the elements of physical, political, and commercial geography is even more deficient. In some instances pupils were found who possessed a tolerable knowledge of the geography of Palestine but were wholly unacquainted with that of Ireland. History is rarely taught in the primary schools, and in the grammar schools English history is much neglected and Irish history entirely so. This arises from the difficulty of teaching mediæval and modern history in mixed schools, without giving offense to either the one sect or the other. Little attention has been given to the modern languages. Most frequently they are treated as *extras*, and form no part of the regular and prescribed course; but even where this is not the case, the number of lessons given—one, or at the farthest two, a-week—is quite inadequate to produce any permanent good results. The study of Greek and Latin, on the other hand, has demanded too great an amount of time, to the prejudice of other essential branches, while, moreover, the knowledge of these languages that is ordinarily attained is very imperfect and quite disproportionate to the amount of labor bestowed upon their acquisition.

In arithmetic the practice is too general, and more especially in the grammar schools, of intrusting instruction to persons of inferior mathematical attainments. Hence, there is an absence of sound instruction in the elementary rules and operations. And in some schools there is even found an ignorance of numeration, a subject which, however, receives

due attention in the schools of the Christian Brothers and in those under the National Board. Plane geometry is generally well taught, but the instruction in algebra is less efficient, and the pupils are not sufficiently trained in the use of logarithmic tables. Solid geometry, also, though attended to in many of the primary schools, is neglected in the grammar schools. The practice of "cramming," and the undue importance often given simply to the memorizing of particular mathematical deductions, are greatly to be regretted. They impede the acquisition of a sound knowledge of general principles and interfere with that mental discipline which is the main object of these studies. The study of astronomy and the use of the globes, natural philosophy, chemistry, physiology, and natural history, are almost universally excluded from the course of instruction. Book-keeping is successfully taught in the schools of the Christian Brothers at Cork, as indeed in other schools, but in a way so purely mechanical as to produce little benefit. In the majority, it is wholly neglected. Mensuration is well taught in the Christian Brothers' Schools and also in some of those under the National Board. Instruction in navigation and in drawing is seldom given. There are also very few schools where the children are taught to sing by note. Singing by rote is more common. Vocal music is taught in the Model Schools under the National Board at extra hours, and the number of pupils that attend is very considerable.

As regards the practical instruction of girls, a short-sighted anxiety to furnish "industrial instruction" has too often led to a neglect of sound mental and moral training. This is especially observable in the schools where instruction is given in the art of lace-making and fancy work, in some of which the amount of time devoted to them is excessive. In the girls' boarding-schools under the Incorporated Society all the pupils in turn are required to perform the various household tasks.

The subject of discipline requires few words. Personal chastisement seems in general to be inflicted only in cases of extreme misbehavior, though no record is made of such infliction, and the governors of the school are thus left without the means of checking any undue severity on the part of the master. It is found that the necessity of resorting to punishment of any kind is least felt in those schools in which the best instruction is given and the greatest pains taken to promote the general well-being of the pupils.

4. *Qualifications of Masters.*—The inefficient condition of many of the schools is owing to the want of masters who have passed through a proper course of preliminary training. As yet the supply of such masters falls very far short of the demand for their services, although the sums of public money placed at the disposal of the National Board have enabled the Commissioners largely to extend the benefits of their model and training schools. On the other hand, the endowed grammar schools and other higher institutions do but little to supply the want complained of. In the principal boarding-school under the care of the Incorporated

Society, young men receive an education qualifying them to become teachers, and they also have an opportunity of acquiring expertness by giving instruction to pupils in the junior classes. But even this school is not professedly a training school, and with this exception there is no endowment whatever which affords to pupils adequate means of fitting themselves for the office of the schoolmaster. The Church Education Society devotes a portion of its funds to the training of masters and mistresses, but the number of pupils trained is small and not sufficient to supply the demand even of the schools under the special care of the Society. Something may be said to be effected towards this end in all schools where the monitorial system is practiced, but the experience of those best acquainted with the working of this system has led them to recommend the restriction of it within narrow limits. The monitor's progress in his own studies is often unduly interfered with by the devotion of a large part of his school-time to his class of junior pupils, and his relation of superiority to them is apt to possess him with an exaggerated notion of his own intelligence. And besides this, it is certain that instruction even in elementary subjects can be best conveyed by those who have long and completely mastered them. The Commissioners do not recommend an extension of the monitorial system as a desirable mode of compensating for the want of well-trained adult teachers. The want of trained female teachers is even more pressing than that of males. The opportunities presented in Ireland to young females for educating themselves as schoolmistresses are quite insufficient, and the bad consequences are painfully apparent in the low state of instruction in many schools for girls.

The average amount of the salaries in the endowed grammar schools is £112, and of the masters and mistresses in the endowed primary schools about £23 a-year. This low scale of remuneration too well accounts for the inefficiency of the schools. Persons of intelligence are discouraged from adopting a calling which is so ill-requited; or finding themselves engaged in it, are tempted to undertake employments inconsistent with the due discharge of their duties as teachers. The underpaid masters of primary schools are too often obliged to cultivate land, or to engage in other avocations which distract them from the performance of their school duties, even if they are not otherwise objectionable. In some schools of a higher kind, the master is induced to undertake ministerial duties, or to raise the school fees and thus exclude from the school the very persons for whose benefit it was endowed. But besides an adequate salary, teachers ought to see before them a reasonable prospect of promotion as the reward of faithful and efficient service, and to have an assurance of some retiring allowance, when age or infirmity shall have disqualified them for the performance of active duties. Arrangements of this kind have been made in hardly any instances for the benefit of masters, and the patronage of the endowed schools being vested in many different hands, it has not been possible to organize an extensive system of

promotion. Even where opportunities have existed to promote efficient masters from inferior to superior situations, the power has not been as fully exercised as was consistent with the interests of the schools.

In view of the condition of the teachers, the Commissioners say:—"We are not of opinion that our endowed schools can be reformed by the pressure of an external authority brought to bear upon them; there must be internal principles of life. Measures must be taken to secure, as far as possible, the selection of properly qualified masters; and those masters when appointed, must be animated in the discharge of their duty by every fitting motive. We must facilitate the training, we must elevate the condition, we must improve the prospects, we must raise the self-respect of the masters; and thus we shall take the surest steps to promote the efficiency of our schools."

5. *School Premises, Furniture, and Requisites.*—With the exception of the Royal Free Schools, and a few others under the care of the Commissioners of Education, the school-houses of this class are dilapidated and ill-supplied. This applies most forcibly to the class of Diocesan Schools, which have been suffered to fall to decay and ruin through the unwillingness and neglect of the Grand Juries, through whom alone the funds for their maintenance can be raised. In the other grammar schools the inadequacy of endowment is the principal cause of the bad state of repair of the school buildings, whose squalid and dilapidated condition both paralyzes the efforts of even the most zealous and intelligent master to promote good order and neatness, compromises his own self-respect and that of his scholars, and is even seriously prejudicial to health. The advantages of a well-arranged school-room in training to habits of neatness and order are beyond the reach of, or are but imperfectly attainable by the scholars of these poorly endowed grammar schools.

The primary schools, also, having small endowments, are generally in bad repair. In many cases no funds appear available for their continued maintenance, whilst their present inefficient state precludes the hope of exciting in their favor such local support as would save them from ruin. This neglect of comfort, health, and even decency is especially observable in the charity boarding-schools for the poorer classes, demonstrating a want of efficient inspection where it is most needed. Many, however, of the Erasmus Smith English schools are provided with respectable and well-planned school-houses; the best of them being much superior to the grammar schools under the same Board.

With the exception of some of the Royal Schools, but few of the grammar schools are supplied with proper school furniture. The condition of the Erasmus Smith schools in this respect is very discreditable. Among the primary schools the same deficiency prevails, except in the case of the most flourishing schools under the care of the National Board, the Christian Brothers, and the Board of Erasmus Smith. In many cases the scholars are supplied with unsuitable books, and in many more the

supply is altogether disproportionate to the number of pupils. Outline and other large maps are not so frequently found as they ought to be; even writing materials are, in many cases, too scantily supplied, while globes, chemical apparatus, and collections of natural objects are hardly to be found. While the best managed primary schools are adequately supplied with the most essential school requisites, the school-rooms of the ordinary grammar schools are nearly destitute of them, and the Commissioners are forced to admit, as a result of the comparison thus instituted, that instruction in some important branches of education receives a greater amount of attention in the primary than in the superior schools.

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It is not so with the endowed grammar schools. The interests of the middle classes have here been sacrificed to those of the higher. The practice of devoting a portion of the charity funds to the payment of apprentice fees has been generally discontinued, and a large proportion of the pupils are received as boarders, paying such stipends and receiving such instruction as indicate that their parents are in comparatively easy circumstances and that they are themselves preparing for the Universities and the learned professions, rather than for the pursuits of commerce and trade. Of the pupils educated in forty-six endowed grammar schools, 506 are boarders paying from about £20 to about £60 a-year. The number of day-scholars is 1,091, while the number of free pupils is only *161*. The total annual value of these endowments is about £12,860, indicating that the annual cost of providing free grammar school instruction is at the rate of £76 for each pupil. In the case of the Royal Free Schools there is an even greater disproportion between the magnitude of the endowments and the result produced in promoting free education. The annual value of the endowments is here £6,880; the number of boarders is 177, paying an average of £48 a-year, while the day-scholars number only 184, and the whole number of free pupils is but forty-seven.

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DEMAND FOR INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.

Much evidence was taken by the Commissioners respecting the need of larger provision for intermediate education in Ireland and the best mode of providing for it. This evidence showed the prevalence of a very strong feeling respecting the increasing deficiency of good education for the middle classes, and the conviction was also generally expressed that the desire for an education of a higher character is rapidly gaining ground among the middle classes, and the necessity was urged of Government grants in aid of local efforts for the establishment of suitable intermediate schools.

Mr. Kirk, the member of Parliament for Newry, and long resident in and well acquainted with the north of Ireland, remarked that "though education is much more general now than it was twenty years ago, it is of a lower quality. The cause arises from the fact that before the establishment of National Schools there was in every town one or more schoolmasters who were capable of teaching, and did teach, classics and science; and though not many pupils took advantage of this, a few did, and these were invariably those who had a taste for a higher education. But the opening of the National Schools took away almost all the children who wished for merely elementary knowledge; since while the national school-master taught all the rudiments for a penny a-week, the old schoolmaster charged from sixteen to twenty-six shillings a-year, or even more; and when the junior classes were taken away, the senior were too few to pay; so that in most cases the masters sought other employments, and it is only in a few of the larger towns that such schools now exist at all. At the same time there never was such a demand for educated persons, both at home and abroad, more especially for such as possess a knowledge of languages, literature, and science. The son of the merchant or country gentleman, who can bear the expenses, can acquire all this, first, at an academy or boarding school, and secondly, at one of the

Queen's Colleges or Trinity College; but this is far beyond the reach of the son of the small farmer, the shop-keeper, the clerk, the artisan, the mechanic, or the manufacturer."

The Rev. Dr. McCosh, Professor in the Queen's College, Belfast, also forcibly illustrated the serious deficiencies existing in the system of intermediate education in the north of Ireland:—"There are large villages, populous rural districts, and even market and borough towns, which are not within five, ten, or even twenty miles of any classical school." And he gives corroborative statements respecting the province of Ulster, notoriously in a better position than other provinces, mentioning numerous towns of two, four, six, or even ten thousand inhabitants that have scarcely a classical or high school of any character whatever. An annexed table contains a list of the towns in Ireland of over 2,000 inhabitants and having no endowed Grammar or superior English school, including four of over 10,000, eight of between 6 and 8,000, sixteen of between 4 and 6,000, and sixty-three of between 2 and 4,000 inhabitants.

As to the means proposed for supplying this deficiency, the Commissioners believe that it can be effected, without establishing a Government system of intermediate education in places where it might not be acceptable to the majority of the inhabitants, by the union of local funds, under the management of local trustees, with grants of public money. The provision for local management would enable the trustees to make suitable regulations for religious instruction, provided that the school shall, as a condition of its partaking of the grant of public money, admit of the united education of persons of all religious persuasions; and provided, also, that the local managers shall be subject to the direct control of the proposed Commissioners of Endowed Schools.

This conclusion is dissented from by H. G. Hughes, one of the Commissioners, who states his conviction that its principle is wrong and unsuited to the condition of society in Ireland. He asserts that the "mixed" system would receive the determined opposition of the Roman Catholic bishops, and if requiring the aid of local assessments, would be impossible. "The mixed system will not be adopted by the Roman Catholics." On the other hand, the existing schools in Ireland that have received the highest commendations of the Commission are those of an essentially "separate" and exclusive character. They are the schools of the Christian Brothers, the schools of the Incorporated Society, and the schools of the Society of Friends. In these schools the managers, teachers, and pupils are of the same religious persuasion, and religious instruction is not only incorporated with secular instruction, but the latter is made subservient to the former, and in these "separate" schools larger numbers receive a better education, at less expense, than the pupils of any other schools that came within the scope of the Commission. Mr. Hughes therefore believes the "separate" system to be, not only sound in principle, but worthy of a fair trial as the only alternative the State can adopt, if it proposes to legislate for the education of the middle classes.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

The Commissioners recommend the establishment of a separate office for the Registration of School Endowments, where the originals or copies of all deeds, wills, or other documents containing trusts for school purposes should be lodged and committed to the custody of an officer exclusively charged with the duty of preserving and arranging them, and making their contents known and accessible to the public.

They also recommend a Board of Audit established in Dublin, possessing the power of enforcing the transmission of accounts and vouchers, of prosecuting defaulters and recovering balances, to report periodically to the Lord Lieutenant.

The Commissioners recommend, as of the most vital importance, a reconstruction of the system of supervision and control, placing it upon a broader basis and modifying as the experience of forty years has shown to be necessary. They would therefore advise the discontinuance of the Commissioners of Education and the establishment of a new Board, composed of a sufficient number of members, appointed by the Government, and selected with a due regard to the representation of the various religious persuasions. One of the Board should receive a salary and devote his whole time to its business, upon whom the chief responsibility should devolve and who should be selected mainly with a view to his fitness for these duties. To secure efficient and periodical inspection there should be one or more well-trained and adequately paid inspectors, with periodical visitations, at least of the chief schools, by the paid Commissioner. The jurisdiction of the Board should extend to all of the non-exclusive schools, all of whose property should be vested in the new Board, with authority to redistribute the revenues, and to consolidate, divide, or change the location of the schools. They should have authority, so far as consistent with the rights of private patronage, to appoint head masters, to regulate the salaries of teachers and assistants, to promote them, to dismiss for inefficiency or other sufficient cause, and to grant retiring pensions in cases of long and faithful service. They should also have the power of regulating the course of instruction, and a large measure of control over the teachers. They also recommend the inspection of the estates by a paid functionary under direction of the Board, and their management by local agents. The Board of Commissioners should also make annual report to Parliament of all their proceedings, including the results of their inspection of schools. Special recommendations are made respecting the Diocesan, Royal, and other non-exclusive schools under the proposed Board, as their different circumstances or defects suggest.

The Erasmus Smith schools, the schools of the Incorporated Society, and all the other exclusive schools and endowments are made the subject of special suggestions respecting their inspection and management, repair of buildings, training and support of teachers, admission of pupils, course of instruction, &c.; and it is recommended that certain schools be converted into training institutions for the instruction of schoolmasters

and mistresses, or into model schools, furnishing training for pupil-teachers.

As respects religion in school, they consider it possible to separate the courses of secular and religious instruction so far as to enable scholars of different religious denominations to receive secular instruction in the same school without compromise of opinions or risk of offense; and that one of the chief recommendations of day-schools and of the great advantages which these possess over boarding-schools consists in the facilities which they afford for combining home instruction in religious and moral principles with school instruction of a purely secular nature. They therefore advise that the trustees of all boarding-schools should be enabled to discontinue the boarding department and to employ the endowment in the support of the pupils as residents in families of the same religious belief, and where they can attend day-schools approved of by their parents and guardians, and can also enjoy the spiritual instruction and care of the clergy of the same denomination.

They advise that the rights of free admission should be clearly defined and strictly enforced; that visitors and trustees should by required by statute to visit their schools at least once a-year and that the results of the visitation should be made public in the newspapers; that a system of superannuation of teachers should be adopted; that the age of retirement should be fixed, and that schoolmasters should be required to insure for a sum equal to, at least, three times their annual salary, payable at that period, or at death, whichever should first happen, the policy being assigned to the managers of the school and the premiums being paid by deductions from the salary, which when too small should be increased for the purpose.

They recommend in detail a more extended and thorough course of English and scientific instruction, and improved methods of classical instruction in the grammar schools. They also advise a continuation of the system of competitive examinations for appointments in the public service, as a measure that would effectually promote intermediate education, and that the tests for these examinations should be as general as possible in their character so as to avoid the serious evils that would arise from directing the attention and efforts of masters to preparation simply for the special requirements of the public service.

IX. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HANOVER.

[Continued.]

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

I. HISTORY.

THE history of Higher Education in Hanover, closely connected here, as throughout Europe, with the history of the Church, is divided into two eras by the Reformation. The early establishment of institutions for the purposes of instruction, contemporary with the introduction of Christianity under Charlemagne, was due only to the necessity of educating a clergy for the Church, and their character and standing were at all times determined by the views of the Church in regard to the training of those in ecclesiastical office. The "*scholæ græcæ et latinæ*" at Osnabrück, founded probably in 783, were undoubtedly the first, though similar cathedral schools were attached to the bishoprics of Verden, Bremen, and Hildesheim, which were established shortly afterwards. Convents were soon built and monasteries of different orders were multiplied in all parts of the land, in connection with which were numerous monastic schools. The oldest and most prominent of these was that of Bardewick, founded early in the ninth century. The monks of the orders of St. Francis and St. Dominic, under the vows which governed them, were eminently zealous and influential in behalf of education, especially in the cities, while Chrodegang's Rules for Canonical Life, which became widely prevalent with the clergy, created a general tendency in the same direction. Teachers were at first drawn principally from Fulda and Corvey, but the schools were soon in a condition to themselves supply this demand. Throughout the tenth century there was an apparent decline in the energy of these institutions, the instruction that was given not going beyond a mechanical training for the service of the Church. The next century, however, shows an advance. The study of the classics, Virgil, Horace, Sallust, Statius, and even Homer, is mentioned in addition to the use of the writings of the Fathers, and the character of the schools is attested by the appearance of such men as Dietmar, Witichind, Adam of Bremen, and Hrotsvitha, and of Bernward of Hildesheim, teacher and friend of Otto III., his successor Godehard, the confidant of Henry II., and Meinwerk, Bishop of Paderborn. These did much for the promotion of classical studies, and their schools became widely known. But their progress was soon checked by the growing degeneracy of the clergy and of the monks, consequent upon the increased wealth of the convents and chapters, under the influence of which, labor was neglected and vows were forgotten. The political troubles which followed the reign of Henry

the Lion were, moreover, very unfavorable to educational progress. Occasional efforts were made towards ecclesiastical reform, the new orders of the Cistercians and Premonstrants arose, and the severity of the Benedictine rules was partially restored, but the schools still suffered from neglect and it was not until the dawn of the more complete Reformation that any special improvement was visible.

In the organization of these schools, as everywhere in the middle ages, we find existing the division of the scholars as "interiores" and "exteriores," according as they resided at the school or at home. The "scholæ minores," which Charlemagne had required to be opened at every convent for the instruction of the children both of the free and serfs of the immediate neighborhood, were simply for elementary instruction and in very many cases were the only ones that existed. The "scholæ majores," which were intended to embrace the whole range of the sciences as at that time known, could be sustained only by the larger and more richly endowed foundations. In most of these schools the instruction consisted in learning the creed, Lord's prayer, etc., in Latin, with the lives and legends of the saints; Latin grammar, (usually as taught in the "Doctrinale" of Alexander,) to which was sometimes added the reading of Virgil and other authors; and the study of rhetoric and dialectics. To meet the wants of the Church service, music was always made prominent, while what was called astronomy was in general nothing but a mere knowledge of the calendar for determining the festivals of the Church. Arithmetic and geometry were also limited to what was most essential.

The first evidence of a better spirit is seen in the attempts of some towns to establish schools of their own. The attempt, however, was always beset with numerous difficulties, inasmuch as the clergy claimed the exclusive right of instruction and jealously guarded against its infringement, while the older institutions set themselves in active and bitter opposition to the new. In general, application had to be made to the bishop, or even to the Pope, for the privilege, and where a school already existed, rarely was anything more allowed than "German schools," for instruction in reading and writing. Yet even with these hindrances many schools would have been established as early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, had not the commotions of the times turned attention to other subjects. Where the right of granting this permission was vested in the sovereign, the object was more easily attained, as by the city of Hanover from Duke Otto in 1280. Still these city schools prior to the Reformation were few in number and differed but little from the convent schools, the instruction being still in the hands of the clergy. The Universities, with their guildlike exclusiveness and adherence to the scholastic methods of instruction, exerted but little influence upon them, and it was long before we see in them any trace of the so-called "revival of letters." Whatever of this kind occurs was due to the labors of Gerhardus Magnus and Thomas à Kempis, who were both the forerunners of the Reformation by founding the "Brotherhood of the Common Life,"

and persuaded their disciples and others to the study of the languages and sciences, and gave in the instruction of youth a strong impulse in the right direction.

The effect was felt in the new era of the system of schools that commenced with the Reformation. Through the favor of the ruling princes, or in spite of their opposition, the Reformation was early introduced and became prevalent in a comparatively short time in all the different sections of the territory, excepting the episcopal sees of Hildesheim and Osnabrück, and a few monasteries. The change was effected under the counsels and encouragement of the great Reformer himself and by his intimate friends Urbanus Regius, Corvinus, Bugenhagen, Armsdorf, and others, who in the reorganization of the Church and schools followed in general the course which he had marked out. The different "Church Regulations," extending in some cases over a large territory and again over but a single city, included also the schools, so far as to require that they should be established, that the teachers should be installed and provided with the necessary "apprentices," and with choristers for instruction in music. As regards the instruction to be given, reference was generally made to Luther's pamphlet "To the Counselors of all the German cities," and to the school ordinance of Saxony of 1528. But in all, the school was considered the daughter of the Church and subject to her; the Gospel was the moving power of the times and its spread was the prime duty of the times.

At first, therefore, the schools were truly "Latin" schools, in each of which were generally three classes. In the lowest class were taught reading, writing, the Lord's prayer, the creed and prayers; Donatus was given them to read and Cato to translate and commit to memory, by which means a large number of Latin words were learned. The second class studied grammar, etymology, syntax, prosody, &c., and read Æsop's fables, the Pædologia of Mosellanus, the Colloquies of Erasmus, and passages from Plautus and Terence. Much was committed to memory. Religious instruction was given every Wednesday and Saturday, embracing the Ten Commandments and the Creed, and the translation from the Vulgate of the Gospel of St. Matthew and perhaps one of the Epistles, and Proverbs. In the third class this instruction was continued, and the Latin was followed up by the reading of Virgil, Ovid, and Cicero's Offices and Epistles, with metrics and a weekly composition of some kind. Latin conversation was much insisted upon. Dialectics and rhetoric were finally taken up, and in all classes music and singing were duly attended to.

Numerous schools of this character were soon established throughout Protestant Germany, not only in the larger cities but even in such as were unable to allow an "apprentice" as assistant in teaching. These were often joined with the "German schools" under the charge of a university graduate as rector—an arrangement that has in some cases survived to the present day. The rector was usually employed by the city

Society, young men receive an education qualifying them to become teachers, and they also have an opportunity of acquiring expertness by giving instruction to pupils in the junior classes. But even this school is not professedly a training school, and with this exception there is no endowment whatever which affords to pupils adequate means of fitting themselves for the office of the schoolmaster. The Church Education Society devotes a portion of its funds to the training of masters and mistresses, but the number of pupils trained is small and not sufficient to supply the demand even of the schools under the special care of the Society. Something may be said to be effected towards this end in all schools where the monitorial system is practiced, but the experience of those best acquainted with the working of this system has led them to recommend the restriction of it within narrow limits. The monitor's progress in his own studies is often unduly interfered with by the devotion of a large part of his school-time to his class of junior pupils, and his relation of superiority to them is apt to possess him with an exaggerated notion of his own intelligence. And besides this, it is certain that instruction even in elementary subjects can be best conveyed by those who have long and completely mastered them. The Commissioners do not recommend an extension of the monitorial system as a desirable mode of compensating for the want of well-trained adult teachers. The want of trained female teachers is even more pressing than that of males. The opportunities presented in Ireland to young females for educating themselves as schoolmistresses are quite insufficient, and the bad consequences are painfully apparent in the low state of instruction in many schools for girls.

The average amount of the salaries in the endowed grammar schools is £112, and of the masters and mistresses in the endowed primary schools about £23 a-year. This low scale of remuneration too well accounts for the inefficiency of the schools. Persons of intelligence are discouraged from adopting a calling which is so ill-requited; or finding themselves engaged in it, are tempted to undertake employments inconsistent with the due discharge of their duties as teachers. The underpaid masters of primary schools are too often obliged to cultivate land, or to engage in other avocations which distract them from the performance of their school duties, even if they are not otherwise objectionable. In some schools of a higher kind, the master is induced to undertake ministerial duties, or to raise the school fees and thus exclude from the school the very persons for whose benefit it was endowed. But besides an adequate salary, teachers ought to see before them a reasonable prospect of promotion as the reward of faithful and efficient service, and to have an assurance of some retiring allowance, when age or infirmity shall have disqualified them for the performance of active duties. Arrangements of this kind have been made in hardly any instances for the benefit of masters, and the patronage of the endowed schools being vested in many different hands, it has not been possible to organize an extensive system of

promotion. Even where opportunities have existed to promote efficient masters from inferior to superior situations, the power has not been as fully exercised as was consistent with the interests of the schools.

In view of the condition of the teachers, the Commissioners say:—"We are not of opinion that our endowed schools can be reformed by the pressure of an external authority brought to bear upon them; there must be internal principles of life. Measures must be taken to secure, as far as possible, the selection of properly qualified masters; and those masters when appointed, must be animated in the discharge of their duty by every fitting motive. We must facilitate the training, we must elevate the condition, we must improve the prospects, we must raise the self-respect of the masters; and thus we shall take the surest steps to promote the efficiency of our schools."

5. *School Premises, Furniture, and Requisites.*—With the exception of the Royal Free Schools, and a few others under the care of the Commissioners of Education, the school-houses of this class are dilapidated and ill-supplied. This applies most forcibly to the class of Diocesan Schools, which have been suffered to fall to decay and ruin through the unwillingness and neglect of the Grand Juries, through whom alone the funds for their maintenance can be raised. In the other grammar schools the inadequacy of endowment is the principal cause of the bad state of repair of the school buildings, whose squalid and dilapidated condition both paralyzes the efforts of even the most zealous and intelligent master to promote good order and neatness, compromises his own self-respect and that of his scholars, and is even seriously prejudicial to health. The advantages of a well-arranged school-room in training to habits of neatness and order are beyond the reach of, or are but imperfectly attainable by the scholars of these poorly endowed grammar schools.

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The neglect of Governors to make rules for the guidance of schoolmasters is general. In fact, they appear to have thought it unnecessary to make rules for the regulation of the grammar schools, regarding them rather as private schools, to be left to the control of the masters.

The aggregate value of the school endowments, as already stated, amounts at present to about £68,500 per annum. Under better management, the revenues might in many cases have been increased and losses which have been incurred might have been avoided. Great negligence has been shown in the care of the records relating to the endowments; charters and title deeds have been in many cases lost, and schedules of them appear to have been but seldom prepared. The management of the estates at present, however, under some of the Boards, is in general careful and judicious; under others much negligence has been shown in some respects. The accounts of school endowments are, in general, ill-kept, because they are imperfectly audited. This office is seldom committed to persons sufficiently well acquainted with money matters and accounts to be able to perform it in a strictly methodical manner. The Commissioners close their remarks upon this subject thus:—"We are convinced that the willingness of benevolent persons to make charitable donations must be very much abated unless they receive assurance that the State will watch over the execution of their intentions and the safe-keeping of the trust funds."

3. *Instruction and Discipline.*—The course of instruction adopted in the Grammar Schools may be said to comprehend the subjects usually taught to scholars preparing to enter the Universities. In this course classical and mathematical studies preponderate, comparatively little attention being paid to English literature, modern languages, or the sciences of observation and experiment. Of late, however, several causes have conspired to turn the attention of schoolmasters to subjects which they had previously overlooked. The Commissioners of Education have founded exhibitions in Trinity College in connection with some of the Royal Schools and prescribed such a course for the candidates as would test their proficiency, not merely in the subjects appointed for the entrance examination, but in English composition, history, and other branches of what is called an English education. This has given rise to a wholesome rivalry among the pupils in the different Royal Schools, and certainly produced a good effect in promoting studies that were formerly almost neglected. The Universities themselves have likewise given a powerful impulse to these studies by establishing new classes of honors, designed to reward the successful pursuit of them. In addition to this influence bearing upon scholars intended for a university career, a new order of things was introduced by the establishment of competitive examinations for admission into the public service, both military and civil. In this examination the English language, literature, and history hold a prominent place, the languages, history, and geography of the continental countries are admitted, and chemistry, physical science, and natural

history are also included. The most intelligent masters of Grammar Schools speedily perceived the bearing of this reform upon the subject of school management and endeavored to make such arrangements as to secure to their pupils a fair chance of obtaining the prizes offered for competition. Perhaps these movements should be referred to a common source—the growth and diffusion of a belief in the necessity of enlarging the foundations of existing school systems.

But with reference to the present state of instruction, it certainly falls below the level that ought to be maintained. While in some of the Royal Schools very efficient instruction in Greek and Latin is imparted and properly qualified assistants are employed to teach the other branches, and in the boarding-schools under the Incorporated Society a well arranged course of English and mathematical study is carefully taught and considerable proficiency attained by the foundation scholars, who possess more than average ability, having gained admission through a competitive examination, yet the inferior condition of the Diocesan schools and the low state of education in other institutions is sufficiently evident. So of the primary schools the report is far from favorable, though among them there is found the greatest possible difference both as regards the character and the efficiency of the means of instruction. In the number of well managed primary schools are those under the management of the National Board, the large schools of the Christian Brothers, and some of the Erasmus Smith English schools, but of the whole number of endowed schools of this class the proportion is very small in which the instruction can be considered very satisfactory. "Great, indeed, would be the advantages diffused amongst the poorer classes by a school in which reading, writing, and the elementary rules of arithmetic were tolerably well taught. But we can not report that the advantages even of this scanty instruction are generally brought home to the cottages of the poor in due accordance with the generous intentions of those persons who have given or bequeathed money for the endowment of schools."

As respects the individual branches of instruction in the grammar schools especially—reading is in general very imperfectly taught. A pupil is rarely met with whose elocution evinces an intelligent comprehension of the subject, combined with clearness of enunciation, and a correct appreciation of the niceties of punctuation, and of the grammatical relation of phrases and sentences to each other. The method of teaching penmanship pursued in the Christian Brothers' Schools is especially approved by the Commissioners. In other schools engraved head-lines, even when they are furnished, are frequently neglected and the pupils are taught to imitate the defective writing of the master. The practice of writing from dictation has been hitherto much neglected and its importance is very imperfectly appreciated. In many of the primary schools, however, this subject has been attended to more carefully and with better results than in the grammar schools. The defects of the present system of education in spelling, punctuation, and other elements of orthog-

raphy, as regards not only the poorer but the middle classes, have been strikingly manifested in the results of the examinations held by the Civil Service Commissioners. They state in their First Report, "that, although the range of examination includes, in some instances, Latin, or a modern foreign language, history, geography, &c., the great majority of rejections have been occasioned, not by ignorance of these subjects, but by inability to spell with ordinary accuracy. The failures, moreover, have not been errors in words of rare occurrence, or technical character, but discreditable mistakes in those of every-day use." Out of a list of 185 rejected candidates, forty-one were refused certificates on the ground of spelling alone, and twenty-three for mistakes in spelling combined with bad writing; while deficiencies of the same sort entered into nearly all the cases of rejection on other grounds.

But the deficiencies in the higher branches of an English education are still more striking. There is a prevailing want of sound instruction in the meanings, derivation, and composition of words and a very general neglect of exercises in the grammatical analysis of sentences. These fundamental defects are not only the chief causes of bad reading, but preclude the possibility of attaining a correct style of speaking and writing. The Civil Service Commissioners, notwithstanding the easy form given by them to the test of proficiency in English composition, found but few instances in which readiness was shown in composing even an ordinary letter. In geography, the inefficient practice prevails of teaching merely by rote or from books. The geography of Great Britain and Ireland, even, are greatly neglected, while the instruction in the elements of physical, political, and commercial geography is even more deficient. In some instances pupils were found who possessed a tolerable knowledge of the geography of Palestine but were wholly unacquainted with that of Ireland. History is rarely taught in the primary schools, and in the grammar schools English history is much neglected and Irish history entirely so. This arises from the difficulty of teaching mediæval and modern history in mixed schools, without giving offense to either the one sect or the other. Little attention has been given to the modern languages. Most frequently they are treated as *extras*, and form no part of the regular and prescribed course; but even where this is not the case, the number of lessons given—one, or at the farthest two, a-week—is quite inadequate to produce any permanent good results. The study of Greek and Latin, on the other hand, has demanded too great an amount of time, to the prejudice of other essential branches, while, moreover, the knowledge of these languages that is ordinarily attained is very imperfect and quite disproportionate to the amount of labor bestowed upon their acquisition.

In arithmetic the practice is too general, and more especially in the grammar schools, of intrusting instruction to persons of inferior mathematical attainments. Hence, there is an absence of sound instruction in the elementary rules and operations. And in some schools there is even found an ignorance of numeration, a subject which, however, receives

due attention in the schools of the Christian Brothers and in those under the National Board. Plane geometry is generally well taught, but the instruction in algebra is less efficient, and the pupils are not sufficiently trained in the use of logarithmic tables. Solid geometry, also, though attended to in many of the primary schools, is neglected in the grammar schools. The practice of "cramming," and the undue importance often given simply to the memorizing of particular mathematical deductions, are greatly to be regretted. They impede the acquisition of a sound knowledge of general principles and interfere with that mental discipline which is the main object of these studies. The study of astronomy and the use of the globes, natural philosophy, chemistry, physiology, and natural history, are almost universally excluded from the course of instruction. Book-keeping is successfully taught in the schools of the Christian Brothers at Cork, as indeed in other schools, but in a way so purely mechanical as to produce little benefit. In the majority, it is wholly neglected. Mensuration is well taught in the Christian Brothers' Schools and also in some of those under the National Board. Instruction in navigation and in drawing is seldom given. There are also very few schools where the children are taught to sing by note. Singing by rote is more common. Vocal music is taught in the Model Schools under the National Board at extra hours, and the number of pupils that attend is very considerable.

As regards the practical instruction of girls, a short-sighted anxiety to furnish "industrial instruction" has too often led to a neglect of sound mental and moral training. This is especially observable in the schools where instruction is given in the art of lace-making and fancy work, in some of which the amount of time devoted to them is excessive. In the girls' boarding-schools under the Incorporated Society all the pupils in turn are required to perform the various household tasks.

The subject of discipline requires few words. Personal chastisement seems in general to be inflicted only in cases of extreme misbehavior, though no record is made of such infliction, and the governors of the school are thus left without the means of checking any undue severity on the part of the master. It is found that the necessity of resorting to punishment of any kind is least felt in those schools in which the best instruction is given and the greatest pains taken to promote the general well-being of the pupils.

4. *Qualifications of Masters.*—The inefficient condition of many of the schools is owing to the want of masters who have passed through a proper course of preliminary training. As yet the supply of such masters falls very far short of the demand for their services, although the sums of public money placed at the disposal of the National Board have enabled the Commissioners largely to extend the benefits of their model and training schools. On the other hand, the endowed grammar schools and other higher institutions do but little to supply the want complained of. In the principal boarding-school under the care of the Incorporated

enabled to learn the efficiency of each institution and of each teacher, has opportunity for communicating advice, admonition, encouragement, or commendation, and can the better carry out its purpose of placing each teacher where his labor will be most effective.

3. *The Preparation of Teachers.*

The Board of Instruction has from its establishment esteemed it of fundamental importance that the teachers as a class should be not only able and well educated, but earnestly appreciative of the greatness of their calling. For the training of such men there already existed the Teachers' Seminary at Göttingen, but, with the discouraging prospects which the schools offered, there were few who were willing to devote themselves by preference and exclusively to this profession. Success depended, therefore, upon opening to teachers a surer prospect of a remunerative career, which was effected by the ordinance of April, 1831. By this was established a Scientific Committee of Examination at Göttingen, in which were represented all the branches in which the future teachers of the higher institutions of the kingdom would need to be examined, and it was provided that every teacher who should pass the required examination before this committee, should have a reversionary right to a position in a higher school and thus a regular career be opened to him as in other branches of the State service. To furnish the practical training preparatory to this examination, a Normal Seminary was opened at Göttingen in 1842, in two sections. The first is under the charge of a "Professor Ordinarius," and as the course is considered a continuation of that at the Teachers' Seminary, the right of admission belongs by preference to those who have pursued the required two years' course at that institution, and then to such as have successfully pursued a three years' course at the University in such branches as are fitted to prepare them for their future office. The Director gives from two to four lectures a week upon the history of the school system and the principles of gymnasial instruction, or requires of the students essays, discussions, and criticisms upon pedagogical subjects. Their leisure time is devoted to general scientific study. The number is limited to six, who at the end of the year's course are admitted to the examination before the committee. Each member receives a stipend of sixty-five thalers, and board to the farther amount of fifty thalers.

The second section is under the care of the Director of the gymnasium and consists of four members who have passed through the first section and on examination shown themselves capable of instructing all the classes of a gymnasium in some one principal branch. The appointment is made by the Supreme Board of Instruction, to whom semi-annual reports must be made of the progress of the members. For their practical training, twelve to fourteen recitations weekly are assigned to each candidate, in the lower and middle classes of the gymnasium. Essays are prepared on didactic and pedagogical questions, and criticisms on text-books and other kindred works, and practical instruction is given them, together or

separately, by the Director. The course continues two years with an annual stipend of 100 thalers, and board to the amount of 50 thalers. Candidates for a teachership who have not attended these institutions, must serve a year's probation before they can gain a final settlement. As preparatory to these several institutions, the attention of the Directors of the gymnasiums has been called, by enactments of the Board of Instruction, to such of their pupils as have teaching at the higher schools in view as a profession.

There is also the Mathematical and Physical Seminary, founded in 1850, for the purpose of affording special instruction in practical mathematics and the natural sciences to those who wish to teach in these branches. It is conducted by the professors of the University and some stipends have been provided for the benefit of its students. The importance of the French and English languages has induced the government to send students to France and England for more thorough and perfect instruction. There is no deficiency of experienced teachers in these or other modern languages.

4. Local School Authorities.

These exist at most of the institutions, under different titles and with different duties, consisting usually of the prominent clergy of the place, some of the magistrates or State officials, and the Director and sometimes a teacher of the school. In the State institutions, they act in general as intermediate between the school and the Board of Instruction and as its representative. In some city schools they hold a similar position though with somewhat more limited duties, while in other places they have no connection with the Board and can only act as advisers.

The immediate management of the schools rests with the Directors, whose authority is not limited by any uniform regulations, but who act as the representatives of their several institutions, conduct all transactions and correspondence between the schools and the authorities, and correspond with the friends of their pupils. It is their duty to watch over the instruction and discipline of the school, to determine the scheme of lessons, (subject to the approval of the Board of Instruction,) to see that the tasks are properly performed and that the teachers are duly in attendance. They are also required by law to hold at least monthly conferences with their teachers in consultation upon all points that in any way concern the welfare of the institution. The most cordial harmony and coöperation on the part of the Director and his associates is always presupposed. The decisions of the conference are determined by the majority and are binding upon all its members, though the Director can set aside any decision or defer its execution, until the judgment of the Board of Instruction is known.

The "Ordinarius," or class teacher, with whom rests as far as possible the instruction of the class in religion, German, history, and, for the most part, in Latin and Greek, is its special director and is responsible for its progress and behavior. His pupils apply to him first for advice and are

Society, young men receive an education qualifying them to become teachers, and they also have an opportunity of acquiring expertness by giving instruction to pupils in the junior classes. But even this school is not professedly a training school, and with this exception there is no endowment whatever which affords to pupils adequate means of fitting themselves for the office of the schoolmaster. The Church Education Society devotes a portion of its funds to the training of masters and mistresses, but the number of pupils trained is small and not sufficient to supply the demand even of the schools under the special care of the Society. Something may be said to be effected towards this end in all schools where the monitorial system is practiced, but the experience of those best acquainted with the working of this system has led them to recommend the restriction of it within narrow limits. The monitor's progress in his own studies is often unduly interfered with by the devotion of a large part of his school-time to his class of junior pupils, and his relation of superiority to them is apt to possess him with an exaggerated notion of his own intelligence. And besides this, it is certain that instruction even in elementary subjects can be best conveyed by those who have long and completely mastered them. The Commissioners do not recommend an extension of the monitorial system as a desirable mode of compensating for the want of well-trained adult teachers. The want of trained female teachers is even more pressing than that of males. The opportunities presented in Ireland to young females for educating themselves as schoolmistresses are quite insufficient, and the bad consequences are painfully apparent in the low state of instruction in many schools for girls.

The average amount of the salaries in the endowed grammar schools is £112, and of the masters and mistresses in the endowed primary schools about £23 a-year. This low scale of remuneration too well accounts for the inefficiency of the schools. Persons of intelligence are discouraged from adopting a calling which is so ill-requited; or finding themselves engaged in it, are tempted to undertake employments inconsistent with the due discharge of their duties as teachers. The underpaid masters of primary schools are too often obliged to cultivate land, or to engage in other avocations which distract them from the performance of their school duties, even if they are not otherwise objectionable. In some schools of a higher kind, the master is induced to undertake ministerial duties, or to raise the school fees and thus exclude from the school the very persons for whose benefit it was endowed. But besides an adequate salary, teachers ought to see before them a reasonable prospect of promotion as the reward of faithful and efficient service, and to have an assurance of some retiring allowance, when age or infirmity shall have disqualified them for the performance of active duties. Arrangements of this kind have been made in hardly any instances for the benefit of masters, and the patronage of the endowed schools being vested in many different hands, it has not been possible to organize an extensive system of

promotion. Even where opportunities have existed to promote efficient masters from inferior to superior situations, the power has not been as fully exercised as was consistent with the interests of the schools.

In view of the condition of the teachers, the Commissioners say:—"We are not of opinion that our endowed schools can be reformed by the pressure of an external authority brought to bear upon them; there must be internal principles of life. Measures must be taken to secure, as far as possible, the selection of properly qualified masters; and those masters when appointed, must be animated in the discharge of their duty by every fitting motive. We must facilitate the training, we must elevate the condition, we must improve the prospects, we must raise the self-respect of the masters; and thus we shall take the surest steps to promote the efficiency of our schools."

5. *School Premises, Furniture, and Requisites.*—With the exception of the Royal Free Schools, and a few others under the care of the Commissioners of Education, the school-houses of this class are dilapidated and ill-supplied. This applies most forcibly to the class of Diocesan Schools, which have been suffered to fall to decay and ruin through the unwillingness and neglect of the Grand Juries, through whom alone the funds for their maintenance can be raised. In the other grammar schools the inadequacy of endowment is the principal cause of the bad state of repair of the school buildings, whose squalid and dilapidated condition both paralyzes the efforts of even the most zealous and intelligent master to promote good order and neatness, compromises his own self-respect and that of his scholars, and is even seriously prejudicial to health. The advantages of a well-arranged school-room in training to habits of neatness and order are beyond the reach of, or are but imperfectly attainable by the scholars of these poorly endowed grammar schools.

The primary schools, also, having small endowments, are generally in bad repair. In many cases no funds appear available for their continued maintenance, whilst their present inefficient state precludes the hope of exciting in their favor such local support as would save them from ruin. This neglect of comfort, health, and even decency is especially observable in the charity boarding-schools for the poorer classes, demonstrating a want of efficient inspection where it is most needed. Many, however, of the Erasmus Smith English schools are provided with respectable and well-planned school-houses; the best of them being much superior to the grammar schools under the same Board.

With the exception of some of the Royal Schools, but few of the grammar schools are supplied with proper school furniture. The condition of the Erasmus Smith schools in this respect is very discreditable. Among the primary schools the same deficiency prevails, except in the case of the most flourishing schools under the care of the National Board, the Christian Brothers, and the Board of Erasmus Smith. In many cases the scholars are supplied with unsuitable books, and in many more the

supply is altogether disproportionate to the number of pupils. Outline and other large maps are not so frequently found as they ought to be; even writing materials are, in many cases, too scantily supplied, while globes, chemical apparatus, and collections of natural objects are hardly to be found. While the best managed primary schools are adequately supplied with the most essential school requisites, the school-rooms of the ordinary grammar schools are nearly destitute of them, and the Commissioners are forced to admit, as a result of the comparison thus instituted, that instruction in some important branches of education receives a greater amount of attention in the primary than in the superior schools.

6. *Pupils.*—The endowed schools originated in the desire to extend the blessings of education to different ranks, while the first objects of the charities were doubtless those of the poorer and middle classes, who, were it not for the endowments, would have been left without the means of obtaining an education suited to their state of life. But the means of primary education supplied by the parochial and endowed English schools being wholly disproportionate to the wants of the poorer classes, the State has undertaken the establishment of a system of "National Schools" in which a very large number of children receive elementary instruction of a superior kind. So far as regards primary instruction there is no occasion to complain that the children of the poor are left destitute, and the endowed primary schools, though not as well managed as might be wished, are yet conferring benefits upon the class of persons whom they were designed to serve.

It is not so with the endowed grammar schools. The interests of the middle classes have here been sacrificed to those of the higher. The practice of devoting a portion of the charity funds to the payment of apprentice fees has been generally discontinued, and a large proportion of the pupils are received as boarders, paying such stipends and receiving such instruction as indicate that their parents are in comparatively easy circumstances and that they are themselves preparing for the Universities and the learned professions, rather than for the pursuits of commerce and trade. Of the pupils educated in forty-six endowed grammar schools, 506 are boarders paying from about £20 to about £60 a-year. The number of day-scholars is 1,091, while the number of free pupils is only 161. The total annual value of these endowments is about £12,360, indicating that the annual cost of providing free grammar school instruction is at the rate of £76 for each pupil. In the case of the Royal Free Schools there is an even greater disproportion between the magnitude of the endowments and the result produced in promoting free education. The annual value of the endowments is here £6,880; the number of boarders is 177, paying an average of £48 a-year, while the day-scholars number only 184, and the whole number of free pupils is but forty-seven.

The little regard that has been paid to the rights of free admission has already been referred to. The course adopted by the Incorporated Society for filling the free places in the boarding-schools by a public compet-

itive examination is found to be followed by most favorable results. These trials are conducted with judgment and fairness, and exercise a beneficial influence upon primary education in the districts from which the candidates are selected, though some of the most valuable results are doubtless due to the great zeal and ability of those who conduct the examinations.

The great irregularity of attendance of the pupils is a striking feature of the schools for the poorer classes throughout Ireland and especially in the agricultural districts. The labor of all who are capable of aiding in the various harvest operations and in the preparation of turf is more valuable than it was a few years ago. The children are also withdrawn at a very early age, so that the amount of instruction and discipline that can be given is much less than might be supposed. This, however, is not as much felt in Ireland as in England, as the labor of young persons is not so generally in demand for the various purposes of manufactures.

DEMAND FOR INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.

Much evidence was taken by the Commissioners respecting the need of larger provision for intermediate education in Ireland and the best mode of providing for it. This evidence showed the prevalence of a very strong feeling respecting the increasing deficiency of good education for the middle classes, and the conviction was also generally expressed that the desire for an education of a higher character is rapidly gaining ground among the middle classes, and the necessity was urged of Government grants in aid of local efforts for the establishment of suitable intermediate schools.

Mr. Kirk, the member of Parliament for Newry, and long resident in and well acquainted with the north of Ireland, remarked that "though education is much more general now than it was twenty years ago, it is of a lower quality. The cause arises from the fact that before the establishment of National Schools there was in every town one or more schoolmasters who were capable of teaching, and did teach, classics and science; and though not many pupils took advantage of this, a few did, and these were invariably those who had a taste for a higher education. But the opening of the National Schools took away almost all the children who wished for merely elementary knowledge; since while the national school-master taught all the rudiments for a penny a-week, the old schoolmaster charged from sixteen to twenty-six shillings a-year, or even more; and when the junior classes were taken away, the senior were too few to pay; so that in most cases the masters sought other employments, and it is only in a few of the larger towns that such schools now exist at all. At the same time there never was such a demand for educated persons, both at home and abroad, more especially for such as possess a knowledge of languages, literature, and science. The son of the merchant or country gentleman, who can bear the expenses, can acquire all this, first, at an academy or boarding school, and secondly, at one of the

Queen's Colleges or Trinity College; but this is far beyond the reach of the son of the small farmer, the shop-keeper, the clerk, the artisan, the mechanic, or the manufacturer."

The Rev. Dr. McCosh, Professor in the Queen's College, Belfast, also forcibly illustrated the serious deficiencies existing in the system of intermediate education in the north of Ireland:—"There are large villages, populous rural districts, and even market and borough towns, which are not within five, ten, or even twenty miles of any classical school." And he gives corroborative statements respecting the province of Ulster, notoriously in a better position than other provinces, mentioning numerous towns of two, four, six, or even ten thousand inhabitants that have scarcely a classical or high school of any character whatever. An annexed table contains a list of the towns in Ireland of over 2,000 inhabitants and having no endowed Grammar or superior English school, including four of over 10,000, eight of between 6 and 8,000, sixteen of between 4 and 6,000, and sixty-three of between 2 and 4,000 inhabitants.

As to the means proposed for supplying this deficiency, the Commissioners believe that it can be effected, without establishing a Government system of intermediate education in places where it might not be acceptable to the majority of the inhabitants, by the union of local funds, under the management of local trustees, with grants of public money. The provision for local management would enable the trustees to make suitable regulations for religious instruction, provided that the school *shall*, as a condition of its partaking of the grant of public money, admit of the united education of persons of all religious persuasions; and provided, also, that the local managers shall be subject to the direct control of the proposed Commissioners of Endowed Schools.

This conclusion is dissented from by H. G. Hughes, one of the Commissioners, who states his conviction that its principle is wrong and unsuited to the condition of society in Ireland. He asserts that the "mixed" system would receive the determined opposition of the Roman Catholic bishops, and if requiring the aid of local assessments, would be impossible. "The mixed system will not be adopted by the Roman Catholics." On the other hand, the existing schools in Ireland that have received the highest commendations of the Commission are those of an essentially "separate" and exclusive character. They are the schools of the Christian Brothers, the schools of the Incorporated Society, and the schools of the Society of Friends. In these schools the managers, teachers, and pupils are of the same religious persuasion, and religious instruction is not only incorporated with secular instruction, but the latter is made subservient to the former, and in these "separate" schools larger numbers receive a better education, at less expense, than the pupils of any other schools that came within the scope of the Commission. Mr. Hughes therefore believes the "separate" system to be, not only sound in principle, but worthy of a fair trial as the only alternative the State can adopt, if it proposes to legislate for the education of the middle classes.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

The Commissioners recommend the establishment of a separate office for the Registration of School Endowments, where the originals or copies of all deeds, wills, or other documents containing trusts for school purposes should be lodged and committed to the custody of an officer exclusively charged with the duty of preserving and arranging them, and making their contents known and accessible to the public.

They also recommend a Board of Audit established in Dublin, possessing the power of enforcing the transmission of accounts and vouchers, of prosecuting defaulters and recovering balances, to report periodically to the Lord Lieutenant.

The Commissioners recommend, as of the most vital importance, a reconstruction of the system of supervision and control, placing it upon a broader basis and modifying as the experience of forty years has shown to be necessary. They would therefore advise the discontinuance of the Commissioners of Education and the establishment of a new Board, composed of a sufficient number of members, appointed by the Government, and selected with a due regard to the representation of the various religious persuasions. One of the Board should receive a salary and devote his whole time to its business, upon whom the chief responsibility should devolve and who should be selected mainly with a view to his fitness for these duties. To secure efficient and periodical inspection there should be one or more well-trained and adequately paid inspectors, with periodical visitations, at least of the chief schools, by the paid Commissioner. The jurisdiction of the Board should extend to all of the non-exclusive schools, all of whose property should be vested in the new Board, with authority to redistribute the revenues, and to consolidate, divide, or change the location of the schools. They should have authority, so far as consistent with the rights of private patronage, to appoint head masters, to regulate the salaries of teachers and assistants, to promote them, to dismiss for inefficiency or other sufficient cause, and to grant retiring pensions in cases of long and faithful service. They should also have the power of regulating the course of instruction, and a large measure of control over the teachers. They also recommend the inspection of the estates by a paid functionary under direction of the Board, and their management by local agents. The Board of Commissioners should also make annual report to Parliament of all their proceedings, including the results of their inspection of schools. Special recommendations are made respecting the Diocesan, Royal, and other non-exclusive schools under the proposed Board, as their different circumstances or defects suggest.

The Erasmus Smith schools, the schools of the Incorporated Society, and all the other exclusive schools and endowments are made the subject of special suggestions respecting their inspection and management, repair of buildings, training and support of teachers, admission of pupils, course of instruction, &c.; and it is recommended that certain schools be converted into training institutions for the instruction of schoolmasters

course of divinity or philology. Two lessons a week for four years are usually given to it. The principal text-books used are Seffer's Elements, Gesenius' Grammar and Reader, Metzger's Exercises, and the books of Ewald. There are no exercises in composition beyond the usual "extemporals," and it is considered sufficient if the students at graduation are able to translate from a historical book with some readiness without special preparation.

In the instruction in French there is little uniformity in the different schools, owing chiefly to the connection here of the real classes with the gymnasium. The number of lessons a week varies for the classes of the gymnasium from eight to sixteen, and in the real school from seven to eleven. Commencing usually perhaps in the Quinta, four hours a week are given it in the preparatory and throughout the real course, while in the middle classes but three lessons and in the higher but two are customary. The text-books are too numerous to be mentioned. In the preparatory and succeeding stages, as much time at least is given to grammar and composition as to translation; in the middle grade and in the real classes, reading is the principal feature, though much time is still given to oral and written exercises, and great stress is laid upon fluency in writing. In the upper classes about the same time is given to each, but less attention is paid to speaking the language than in the higher real class, as it is not one of the requirements at the proficiency examination. The instruction in this branch is given sometimes by the class teachers, and sometimes by special teachers, who are also engaged in teaching other branches, as history, geography, religion, or Hebrew. Sometimes also teachers are employed for the lower and middle classes, and in the smaller schools, who have had their training at the Teachers' Seminaries.

The same may be said in regard to the instructors in English. This language is commenced, with more uniformity than the French, in the Secunda, and receives two hours weekly for four years. As an acquaintance with the literature is the principal object, reading occupies most of the time, the exercises in composition aiming rather at a knowledge of the grammar than fluency and skill of expression. The English language stands in much the same relation to the French in this respect, as the Greek does to the Latin. In the real classes, on the other hand, more attention is given to composition, both in English and French. The authors read are Scott, Irving, Marryat, Cooper, Dickens, Macauley, Shakespeare, Byron, and Sheridan. The text-books are numerous.

To the study of German, four hours a week are given in the real classes and in the two lower classes of the gymnasium; in the higher classes, three hours. The lower grade of instruction here consists in exercises in reading, committing poetry to memory, oral or, perhaps, written narrative, grammar, and spelling, which is taught according to the rules published by the Supreme Board of Instruction. Above the lower classes grammar forms no special branch of study, except in the Catholic

schools, where particular attention is paid to syntax. The Protestant schools are satisfied to teach the essentials by means of reading and composition, while for a deeper understanding of it the study of the middle high German is depended upon. For exercise in reading, many books have been prepared and selections from the writings of German authors, both in prose and poetry. In most institutions the middle high German is studied by the two higher classes, with the use of Schädel's and Kohlrausch's Elements, and the reading of the "Niebelungen Lied," the "Gudrun," and Volckmar's selections from the Minnesänger. Pains are taken to impart a general knowledge of the most important periods of German literature, and exercises are also held in declamation, the recitation of poems, orations, &c., selected and original. The written exercises that come under the name of compositions, in the lower classes, consist only of a reproduction of what has been learned in history or in the reading exercises, and even in the Quarta they do not pass essentially beyond narration, subjects for which are drawn from the same sources, or are found in special incidents and current events. In the Tertia, in addition to narration and description, written translations and paraphrases of passages from the classics are required, as well as practice in the epistolary style, the illustration of proverbs by historical examples, and even the discussion of the causes and effects of historical events. Dissertations of the latter character are frequent in the two higher classes, with historical composition, discussions upon the authenticity of particular facts, and the rhetorical criticisms of classical orations. Abstract argumentative composition is but little practiced. In connection with these exercises due attention is given to instruction in rhetoric—in invention and order, by means of examples, and in elocution, by the corrections in the compositions. The reading of the poets affords opportunity for metrical practice.

In Grecian history, the field is limited, by the requirements for the proficiency examination, to the period from 500 B. C. to 323 B. C.; the study of Roman history ends with Augustus, and the German commences with Charlemagne, but within these limits a thorough knowledge is demanded. The usual number of lessons is two a week in each class, rarely three. In all institutions there is a uniform division of the course into three sections for the lower, middle, and higher classes—sometimes styled the biographical, ethnographical, and general history courses—the first consisting of descriptions of the most remarkable events that occurred within these periods, the second giving a more connected knowledge of the history of the different nations and including the study of chronology, and the third perfecting the knowledge already attained and giving a clear, comprehensive, general view of the whole. In the higher real class, ancient history is made less prominent than in the gymnasial course, and more attention is paid to German and modern history in general. The text-books used are those of Marckgraff, Welter, Stüve, Dietsch, Kohlrausch, Schuster, Pütz, Dittmar, and Beck, but these are only employed as guides and the principal reliance is placed upon lec-

tures, which the students are required to follow and master by careful study.

Geography is pursued as a distinct study in the lower and middle classes, receiving usually two hours a week. In the higher classes the study is blended with that of history, for which an additional lesson is very often given. The usual text-books are David, Oppermann, Hartmann, Volger, Stahlberg, Meurer, Metzger, and Rougemont, besides various atlases. Globes and wall-maps are in general use, and sometimes other apparatus. The "modern" method of instruction is principally followed, commencing by giving a thorough idea of the form of the earth and the position of its principal divisions, then taking up Europe, at first in outline, and tracing out its mountain ranges and river courses, and then its separate countries in a similar manner. In a few schools the opposite or synthetic method is pursued. Map-drawing is everywhere much practiced.

In natural history, two lessons a week are given in the Sexta to imparting information and exciting an interest in regard to the animal and vegetable kingdoms, by means of descriptions, pictures, and specimens. In the Quinta and Quarta, the same amount of time is devoted to botany in summer and to zoölogy in winter. In the higher real class the same branches are studied more in detail and the study of mineralogy is usually added. As text-books, Lueben, Milter, Leunis, and Prestel are in common use.

The course of arithmetic is usually confined to the three lower classes, with four lessons a week, and for the most part follows the excellent text-books of Krancke. In the real classes the study is continued farther than in the gymnasium and more attention is paid to its practical applications in business and common life.

Mathematics, aside from arithmetic, commences usually in the Quarta and is continued through the course with three or four lessons weekly. The course includes the solution of quadratic equations with one or more unknown quantities, arithmetical and geometrical series, the theory and use of logarithms, the relations of rectilinear figures and the properties of the circle, plane trigonometry, and the measurement of surfaces and solids. The instruction is conducted by some teachers without the employment of any text-books whatever; others make use of the works of Ludowieg, Haage, Prestel, Schoof, Hartmann, Wittstein, Koppe, Lückenhoff, or Tellkampf.

Natural Philosophy is pursued in the Prima and higher real class, with some preparatory study in the Secunda. Two lessons a week are given it, and it includes the properties of bodies, the laws of equilibrium and motion, and the subjects of heat, electricity, and magnetism. All the schools are supplied with a sufficient apparatus for illustration. The books of Müller, Koppe, Fischer, Trappe, and Fliedner are used.

There is no special course of mental or moral philosophy, but the main points are considered in connection with other branches. Logic is in-

troduced in the study of German; the history of philosophy, and its elements, while reading Plato and Cicero; doctrinal theology and ethics, in religious instruction, &c.

Singing is a branch universally taught, and strongly insisted upon by the Board of Instruction. The number of lessons varies from six to eight. The students are usually divided into two classes, the first for elementary exercises, and chorals and songs in one part, and consisting of the two or three lower classes. The second division includes the higher classes and such as are prepared to join them from the lower, and in this the practice is more extended. Instruction in instrumental music is given to such as desire it.

Drawing is also taught in all schools and is obligatory upon members of the lower and real classes. In the higher classes it is optional, and the special branch of the art pursued is there left to the choice of the pupil. Instruction in penmanship is given in the three or four lower classes and in the lower real classes, though the time devoted to it varies much in different schools. The method pursued is the so-called "American," with numerous modifications.

Gymnastic exercises are now everywhere introduced. Since 1848, grants have been made from the State Treasury to every school, for providing suitable grounds and apparatus, and two teachers are employed by Government to visit the schools, give instruction, and maintain the efficiency of the department. Some one of the teachers has the special direction and superintendence of the exercises. The whole body of students is usually divided into two sections, which exercise an hour or two twice a week. Attendance is optional, though an annual payment of about one thaler is required from each student.

	Gymnasium and Real Classes.*								Pro-gymnasium.				
Classes.	I.	II.		III.		IV.		V.	VI.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Religion,	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	3	3	2	3	3	4	4
German,	3	3	(4)	3	(4)	3	(4)	3	4	3	3	4	6	6
Latin,	9	9	(4)	9	(4)	9	(4)	9	9	8	5	6	6	
Greek,	6	6		6		6				[4]				
French,	2	2	(4)	3	(4)	2	(4)	3		4	3	4		
English,	2	2	(4)		(4)		(2)			3	3			
Hebrew,	[2]	[2]												
History,	3	3	(2)	3	(2)	2	(2)	2		2	2	2		
Geography,			(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	4		2	2	2	2	2
Natural History,			(2)		(2)		(2)	2	2	2	2	1		
Nat. Philosophy,	2													
Math., and Arithmetic,	3	3	(6)	4	(6)	4	(6)	4	4	6	6	4	4	5
Penmanship,						2	(2)	2	4		2	2	4	5
Drawing,	[2]	[2]	(2)	[2]	(2)	[2]	(2)	2	2	2	2	2	1	
Singing,	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	2	1	2	2	1	
Gymnastics,	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	36	36	(36)	36	(36)	36	(36)	36	36	41	37	34	30	28

* The number of lessons in the real classes are placed parenthetically in the same columns with those of the parallel classes (II., III., IV.) of the gymnasium. There is no separation of the stu-

REAL SCHOOL AT HANOVER.

	Real Department.						*Preparatory Depart.*				
Classes.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	Total.
Religion,	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	3		25
German,	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	8	8	10	56
French,	4	4	4	4	4	4					24
English,	3	3	4	4							14
Latin,	2	3	4	4	4	5	4				26
Mathematics,	4	4	4	2							14
Arithmetic,	2	2	2	2	4	4	6	6	6	4	38
History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1			14
Geography,	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1		15
Nat. Philosophy,	2	2									4
Chem., and Mineralogy,	4	2									6
Nat. History,			2	2	2	2			2	2	12
Penmanship,			2	2	3	3	4	6	6	4	30
Drawing,	2	2	2	2	2	2					12
Draughting,	[3]	[3]									
Singing,	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	2	1	2				5
	33	32	34	32	32	32	28	26	26	20	295

The foregoing tables give a general view of the average distribution of lessons in the gymnasium, with its fully organized real classes—also in one of the more complete pro-gymnasiums—and in the real school at Hanover.

No examination of proficiency has yet been prescribed for real scholars, though it is required of candidates for certain branches of public service, as the Post Office, &c., that they have spent two full years in the higher real class and are able to satisfy certain established conditions. As farther respects the method of instruction, it is sometimes the case, where the teaching force is deficient, that a class is taught in two distinct sections at the same time. This usually occurs in instruction in the languages, when those just entering a class are to be instructed in what the older members are already familiar with, and also in arithmetic—one portion of the class being occupied in preparing written exercises, or in solving problems, or otherwise employed, while the teacher is engaged with the other, or they both have the same tasks, so planned that the exercises are of mutual benefit to both divisions. The consecutive method of instruction is also very common. As the Latin and Greek authors are usually read in succession rather than together, so at many schools, arithmetic and geometry are made to alternate with each other, three or six months being given to each in succession; so also, history and geography, or geography and natural history, where both branches are taught by the same instructor.

The labor required of the students out of school hours, in the prepara-

dents in the lower classes. The numbers included in brackets denote lessons in which only portions of the classes are engaged. In the lower class of the pro-gymnasium, four hours are also given to instruction in intuition.

tion of exercises and lessons, occupies one to two hours daily in the lower classes, and three or sometimes even four hours in the middle and upper classes. The written exercises are corrected by the teachers, with the exception of the translations, which in the upper classes are usually only read and corrected orally. The teachers have also the general superintendence of the private studies of the pupils, and are permitted to give private instruction to such as seem to require it.

All the schools possess libraries containing the German classics and popular, literary, and scientific works for the use both of students and teachers. They are sustained by special funds or are in many cases dependent upon the contributions of students and the patrons of the school.

2. *Discipline.*

The discipline of the schools is made to rest upon the principle that it will be best maintained when, without special management, it finds its execution in the ordinary routine and exercises of the institution. The personal influence of the teacher in the performance of his professional duties and in his more intimate intercourse with his pupils is expected to lead them imperceptibly and almost unconsciously into right habits of feeling and action. It is the duty of the class teacher to advise and instruct the members of his class even out of school, and especially those who do not reside with their parents or in the family of a teacher. And that interference, when necessary, may be well founded and to the purpose, the Primus (head-pupil) of the class keeps a so-called "class-book" in which is entered whatever relates to the conduct of the members. These notes, as well as all admonitions and punishments inflicted, are taken into account in promotion and in the granting of certificates. Printed rules are quite frequent, but in some schools the rules are given orally every quarter or half-year to each class separately. Written excuses for absence must be rendered by the parents, but except for sickness, absence is not allowed without permission being previously asked. The usual punishments are—admonition; entry in the class-book; confinement in the school-room, with extra tasks; in some cases, corporal punishment, in the lower classes; in the upper classes, imprisonment in the school-prison; and expulsion. Severe punishment is rarely necessary, as the parents are kept informed, by half-yearly or quarterly reports, of the behavior of their sons. The system of prizes is wholly abolished.

The familiar "Thou" is used in addressing the members of the lower and middle classes; the more respectful "You" is applied to the two higher and first real class. Visiting public houses is forbidden, even to the older students, as well as smoking in the streets. Both prohibitions are a temptation to transgression, and some institutions have much difficulty in enforcing them. Members of the Prima and Secunda are permitted at some schools to visit a public garden during the summer, under certain conditions, and it has not been found that the privilege is abused. Experience shows that the desire of indulgence is stronger in

the middle than in the higher classes, and also that where the board of teachers act in harmony and oppose themselves conscientiously and consistently against wrong-doing, the preservation of discipline and good morals is not very difficult.

3. *Vacations and Public Examinations.*

The school-year commences at Easter. The vacations amount to nine or ten weeks, distributed unequally at Easter, Ascension Day, Michaelmas, and Christmas. No instruction is given on the afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday, and other afternoons are occasionally free. School festivals occur at Easter and Michaelmas, with orations from graduating members and musical exercises by the class choirs. Printed programmes of the Easter exercises are usual, and a system of exchanges is maintained with the institutions of the other German States.

Besides the proficiency examination, other public examinations are held at Easter, and occasionally at Michaelmas. There are also the so-called class examinations, to which the public are not admitted, and which are so arranged that the teachers may become better acquainted with each other's methods and be benefited by an interchange of views and experiences.

V. RELATIONS OF THE TEACHERS.

1. *Grades and Titles.*

The teachers are either permanently located, or are only engaged for instruction in certain branches, as in drawing, singing, or sometimes in writing, and otherwise not connected with the school. The settled teachers are on an equality in so far as they have the right of voting in the conferences and a claim to certain privileges from the State. Their position, however, differs according as they are class or department teachers, and also according to the classes to which they are attached. Of the total 240 teachers, 191 have passed through a university course; viz., 96 in the languages, 55 in theology, (23 of whom are Catholic,) 23 in mathematics, 8 in mathematics and the languages, and 9 in the modern languages. The head officer of the gymnasium is entitled "Director," the highest class teacher is "Rector," the two or three next below him are "Conrectores;" then follow the "Subconrector" and the "Collaboratores." There is also the title "Oberlehrer," especially for department teachers. In the pro-gymnasium, the teachers are styled "Rector," "Conrector," and "Collaboratores." All classes of society are represented, excepting the nobility, the higher grade of State officials, and the army.

2. *Examinations and Settlement.*

Candidates for any position are required to pass an examination before the Scientific Examining Committee. The requirements of this "examen pro facultate docendi" are modified according as the candidate may desire to become a class teacher, a department teacher of mathematics and the natural sciences, or of the modern languages, or an assistant in the

separate branches of the lower classes. According to the result a certificate is granted of his fitness to teach in any of the classes, or in the middle and lower, or in the lower only. For the advancement of the latter to the charge of the higher classes, another examination is requisite, unless the capacity of the individual has become so evident that in the view of the Board of Instruction it is unnecessary. The recent regulations of 1858 have so far defined the requisites of this examination and limited its field that the danger now is that the student, instead of directing his attention, as before, to the whole field of knowledge and striving to make himself its master, will keep in view only the requirements of the examination and trim and fashion his studies so as merely to answer to the demand. A similar objection exists to the new provision permitting the candidate to select the branches in which to be examined, for certainly none should be placed as teachers in such institutions who have not gone through a thorough general course of university study.

After a final trial exercise before the Board of Instruction, the candidate either enters an institution for a year's practice and trial, or is admitted member of the second section of the Normal Seminary. As soon as his efficiency is proved, he is enrolled as entitled to employment, and an engagement soon follows. The age for settlement is not fixed, and is less than formerly. Many are now permanently located at the age of twenty-three. At the ten State institutions the appointment depends wholly upon the Board of Instruction, and also at the others in conjunction with the patrons or episcopal authorities, who willingly assent to the choice of the Board. The directors have no voice legally in the appointment, but from their position, their views and wishes are consulted and regarded.

The amount of instruction required of each teacher is not fixed by law. It varies at different schools, but in general the teachers in the preparatory department give thirty to thirty-two lessons in a week; in the lower classes, from twenty-four to twenty-seven, and in the middle and upper classes, from twenty to twenty-four. The directors rarely teach more than twelve to sixteen hours in a week.

3. *State Relations. Salaries. Pensions.*

As employed in the service of the State, teachers are in the same position as other State officials. They are subject to the same regulations respecting suspension or dismissal from office, and in case of unfitness, indolence, or incompetency that will not yield to warning and censure, provision is made for an examination "pro loco," as a result of which the teacher may be assigned to a lower position, be compelled to accept an assistant, or be dismissed, with or without pension. The examination may be avoided by voluntary assent to such of these changes as the Board may elect. There have been, however, but four cases of dismission since the establishment of the Board.

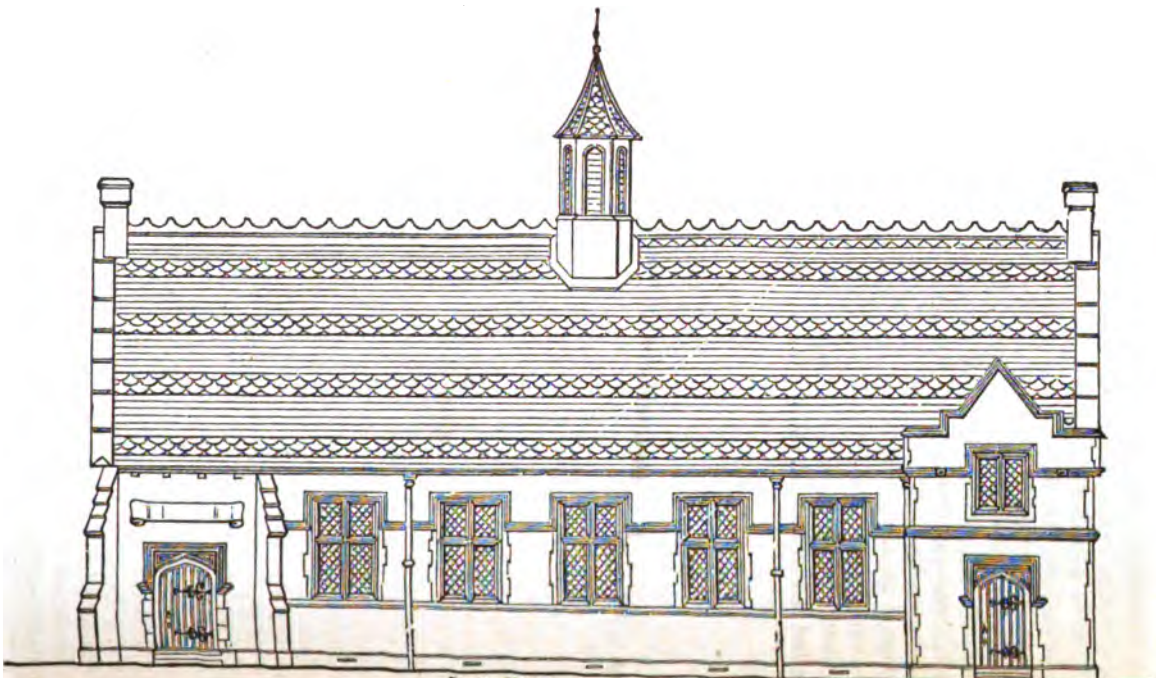
The minimum salary, which until recently was only 300 thalers, has recently been raised in many cases to 400. While the average salary in

1868 for university trained teachers was 575 thalers, it is now 731, and for others, somewhat over 441 thalers; which includes the value of house rent and the payments in kind which are made to many teachers. There is no immunity from taxation. A comparison of these salaries with those of other officials shows that they are still relatively less than they should be, though the earlier age at which the teacher obtains his office diminishes the inequality in some degree. The right to a pension commences after ten years of service. The amount is then thirty per cent. of the teacher's salary, and increases one per cent. for each year of subsequent service, and after the thirtieth year, two per cent., until the maximum of eighty per cent. is reached. Three per cent. of the salary of married teachers is paid into the Fund for the Support of Widows of Officers of the Court and Civil Service, from which their widows are entitled to a pension equal to one-third of the salary.

4. *General Remarks.*

It is an acknowledged fact that the result of the organization of 1830 has been to give these schools new life and activity, to make them equal to the demands of the times, and to raise them to a level with the similar schools of Prussia and other neighboring States. This is generally due to the wise action of the Board of Instruction, who, without recourse to experiment or theory, simply accepted the institutions as they were and afforded them room and inducement for a healthy and natural development. By labor and prudence, by kind and conciliatory language and encouragement, difficulties and jealousies were removed, interest was excited, and the teachers were gained over and gradually brought to an earnest devotion and satisfaction in the labors of their profession and a patient endurance of poverty. This latter evil has also been greatly relieved. The sum spent upon the schools has more than doubled since 1830, which would have given a very satisfactory increase of salary had not the number of teachers also increased in the same time nearly fifty per cent. A farther improvement in this respect is probable, and it is also to be hoped that a system of graded salaries will be established, by which the record shall be proportioned to the labor and the length of service, as has long been the case with other State officials. Various other changes remain still to be desired. The smaller institutions and the pro-gymnasiums in many cases need increased means and a larger force of teachers to enable them to effect all that they ought to do. It ought to be made possible to transfer teachers from one location to another, as the interests of the schools or the wants of the teachers may require. Teachers need to be encouraged and assisted to advance in their studies, which it is now frequently impossible to do without great strength of will and self-denial, and every means employed to prevent at least any retrogression in this respect. It would seem that in the last ten years the teacher's task has become more tedious; the scholars with the same will and degree of zeal have less power of mind and find it more difficult to conquer their studies and attain to that maturity of judgment nec-

essary for success in academical study, and thus more labor is thrown upon the teacher and a greater demand made upon his own scientific knowledge and experience. In regard to the proficiency examination, the Latin composition should especially be restored, and also the examination in history and mathematics be made easier. One danger yet remains to be guarded against, the want of thoroughly efficient, well-trained teachers, and this leads inevitably to the difficult question of salary. The times have changed and calculation has driven out inspiration. Very few, even of the better and more aspiring youth, now enter upon literary and scientific studies, wholly absorbed by an ideal interest, as was once the case. The technical and other departments of the public service require less time and preparation, and for at least not more difficult labors, place before their eyes prospects of greater regard than the department of instruction. The teacher's office should be placed at least on a level with others, and noble and elevating as it is, should be so recognized and so honored. *Honos alit artes!*



PLAN—No. 10. FRONT ELEVATION.



X. VENTILATION

EVERY apartment of a school-house should be provided with a cheap, simple, and efficient mode of ventilation, by which the air, which is constantly becoming vitiated by respiration, combustion, or other causes, may be constantly flowing out of the room, and its place filled by an adequate supply of fresh air drawn from a pure source, and admitted into the room at the right temperature, of the requisite degree of moisture, and without any perceptible current. These objects may be attained by attention to the following particulars:

1. The location of the school-house must be healthy, and all causes—such as defective drains, stagnant water, decaying animal or vegetable substances, and manufactures, whose operations evolve offensive and deleterious gases—calculated to vitiate the external atmosphere, from which the air of the school-room is supplied, must be removed or obviated.

2. The means provided for ventilation must be sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows, and other lateral openings, which are intended primarily for the admission of light, passage to and from the apartment, and similar purposes. Any dependence on the opening of doors and windows, except in summer, will subject the occupants of the room near such points to currents of cold air when the pores of the skin are open, and when such extreme and rapid changes of temperature are particularly disagreeable and dangerous.

3. Any openings in the ceiling for the discharge of vitiated air into the attic, and hence to the exterior of the building, or by flues carried up in the wall, no matter how constructed or where placed, can not be depended on for purposes of ventilation, unless systematic arrangements are adopted to effect, in concert with such openings, the introduction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air, in the right condition as to temperature and moisture.

4. All stoves, or other heating apparatus, standing in the apartment to be warmed, and heating only the atmosphere of that apartment, which is constantly becoming more and more vitiated by respiration and other causes, are radically defective, and should be altogether, without delay, and forever discarded.

5. Any apparatus for warming pure air, before it is introduced into the school-room, in which the heating surface becomes *red-hot*, or the air is warmed above the temperature of boiling water, is inconsistent with good ventilation.

6. To effect the combined objects of warming and ventilation, a large quantity of moderately heated air should be introduced in such a manner as to reach every portion of the room, and be passed off by appro-

priate openings and flues, as fast as its oxygen is exhausted, and it becomes vitiated by carbonic acid gas, and other noxious qualities.

7. The size and number of the admission flues or openings will depend on the size of the school-room, and the number of persons occupying the same; but they should have a capacity to supply every person in the room with at least five cubic feet of air per minute. Warm air can be introduced at a high as well as a low point from the floor, provided there is an exhaustive power in the discharging flues sufficient to secure a powerful ascending current of vitiated air from openings near the floor.

8. Openings into flues for the discharge of vitiated air, should be made at such points in the room, and at such distances from the openings for the admission of pure warm air, that a portion of the warm air will traverse every part of the room, and impart as much warmth as possible, before it becomes vitiated and escapes from the apartment.

These openings can be made near the floor, at points most distant from the admission flues, provided there is a fire-draught, or other power operating in the discharging flues, sufficient to overcome the natural tendency of the warm air in the room to ascend to the ceiling; otherwise they should be inserted in or near the ceiling.

Openings at the floor are recommended, not because carbonic acid gas, being heavier than the other elements of atmospheric air, settles to the floor, (because, owing to the law of the diffusion of gases among each other, carbonic acid gas will be found equally diffused through the room,) but because, when it can be drawn off at the floor, it will carry along with it the cold air which is admitted by open doors, and at cracks and crevices, and also the offensive gases sometimes found in school-rooms.

9. All openings, both for the admission and discharge of air, should be fitted with valves and registers, to regulate the quantity of air to pass through them. The quantity of air to be admitted should be regulated before it passes over the heating surface; otherwise, being confined in the air chamber and tubes, the excessive heat will cause much injury to the pipes and the woodwork adjoining.

10. All flues for ventilation, not intended to act in concert with some motive power, such as a fan, a pump, the mechanism of a clock, a fire-draught, a jet of steam, &c., but depending solely on the spontaneous upward movement of the column of warm air within them, should be made large, (of a capacity equal to at least 18 inches in diameter,) tight, (except the openings at the top and bottom of the room,) smooth, (if made of boards, the boards should be seasoned, matched, and planed; if made of bricks, the flue should be round, and finished smooth,) and carried up on the inside of the room, or in the inner wall, with as few angles and deviations from a direct ascent as possible, above the highest point of the roof.

11. All flues for the discharge of vitiated air, even when properly constructed and placed, and even when acting in concert with a curren:

of warm air flowing into the room, should be supplied with some simple reliable exhaustive power, which can be applied at all seasons of the year, and with a force varying with the demands of the season, and the condition of the air in the apartment.

12. The most simple, economical, and reliable motive power available in most school-houses is heat, or the same process by which the natural upward movements of air are induced and sustained. Heat can be applied to the column of air in a ventilating flue—

1. By carrying up the ventilating flue close beside, or even within the smoke flue, which is used in connection with the heating apparatus.

2. By carrying up the smoke-pipe within the ventilating flue, either the whole length, or in the upper portion only. In a small school-room, the heat from the smoke-pipe carried up for a few feet only in the ventilating flue before it projects above the roof, is a motive power sufficient to sustain a constant draught of cool and vitiated air, into a opening near the floor.

3. By kindling a fire at the bottom, or other convenient point in the ventilating flue—

If the same flue is used for smoke from the fire, and vitiated air from the apartment, some simple self-acting valve or damper should be applied to the opening for the escape of the vitiated air, which shall close at the slightest pressure from the inside of the flue, and thus prevent any reverse current, or down draught, carrying smoke and soot into the apartment.

4. By discharging a jet of steam, or a portion of warm air from the furnace, or other warming apparatus, directly into the ventilating flue.

Any application of heat by which the temperature of the air in the ventilating flue can be raised above the temperature of the apartment to be ventilated, will cause a flow of air from the apartment to sustain the combustion, (if there is a fire in the flue,) and to supply the partial vacuum in the flue, which is caused by the rarefaction of the air in the same.

In all school buildings, when several apartments are to be ventilated, the most effectual, and, all things considered, the most economical mode of securing a motive power, is to construct an upright brick shaft or flue, and in that to build a fire, or carry up the smoke-pipe of the stove, furnace, or other warming apparatus; and then to discharge the ventilating flues from the top or bottom of each apartment, into this upright shaft. The fire-draught will create a partial vacuum in this shaft, to fill which, a draught will be established upon every room with which it is connected by lateral flues. Whenever a shaft of this kind is resorted to, the flues for ventilation may be lateral, and the openings into them may be inserted near the floor.

13. With a flue properly constructed, so as to facilitate the spontaneous upward movement of the warm air within it, and so placed that the air is not exposed to the chilling influence of external cold, a turncap, constructed after the plan of Emerson's Ejector, or Mott's Exhausting

Cowl, will assist the ventilation, and especially when there are any currents in the atmosphere. But such caps are not sufficient to overcome any considerable defects in the construction of the ventilating flues, even when there is much wind.

14. The warming and ventilation of a school-room will be facilitated by applying a double sash to all windows having a northern and eastern exposure, or on the sides of the prevailing winds in winter.

15. In every furnace and on every stove, a capacious vessel, well supplied with fresh water and protected from the dust, should be placed.

16. Every school-room should be furnished with two thermometers, placed on opposite sides in the room, and the temperature in the winter should not be allowed to attain beyond 68° Fahrenheit at a level of four feet from the floor, or 70° at the height of six feet.

17. The necessity for ventilation in an occupied apartment is not obviated by merely reducing the atmosphere to a low temperature.

18. No apparatus, however skillfully constructed or judiciously located, can dispense with the careful oversight of a thoughtful teacher.

Although much has been said and printed on the principles and modes of ventilation, there is much to be done by educators, committees, and teachers, to enlighten and liberalize the public mind and action on this important subject—not only in reference to school-rooms, but to halls of justice and legislation, to churches, lecture rooms, and workshops,—to all places where human beings congregate in large numbers, for business or pleasure.

Mr. D. Leach, one of the agents employed by the Board of Education in Massachusetts, to visit schools and confer with committees in regard to the construction of school-houses, remarks in 1853:

In a large majority of school-houses, there are no means of ventilating but by opening the windows and doors. And where attempts have been made, it has been but imperfectly accomplished. The ventilating tubes have almost invariably been too small. As the result of my investigations, I would make the following suggestions. To ventilate a room properly containing fifty persons, the ventilating tube should not be less than fifteen square inches inside. The tube should be made of very thin boards, well seasoned, with a smooth inside surface, and it should be perfectly tight. It should be wholly within the room, and opposite to the register or stove. There should be an opening at the top and bottom. The ventilating tubes should be connected in the attic, and conducted through the roof, and furnished with a suitable cap. Another method, which is far preferable, is as follows: The smoke pipes may be conducted into a cast iron pipe resting on soap-stone in the attic floor, instead of a chimney built from the bottom of the cellar. This cast iron pipe may be surrounded by a brick chimney, into which the ventilating tubes should lead. The space in the chimney should be equal to the spaces in the tubes, after making suitable allowance for the pipe; and the increase of friction. By this arrangement, the air in the tubes will be rarefied, and a rapid current of air produced. All attempts to ventilate rooms with tubes in the wall, or of less size than fourteen or fifteen square inches for fifty persons, have, so far as I have examined, failed. No artificial means will secure good ventilation when the temperature of the room and that of the outer air are nearly the same, without the application of heat to the air in the tubes. Unless the air is heated before being admitted into the room, it should be let in at the top, and not at the bottom, and always through a large number of small apertures. The quantity of pure air admitted must always be equal to that which is to be forced out.

Methods of Ventilation and Warming, recently introduced into the School-Houses of Boston.

In February, 1846, the School Committee of Boston appointed Dr. Henry G. Clark, E. G. Loring, Esq., and Rev. Charles Brooks, a Committee "to consider the subject of ventilation of the school-houses under the care of this Board, and to report at a future meeting some method of remedying the very defective manner in which it is now accomplished." The Committee were further "authorized to ventilate any three school-houses, in such manner as they may deem expedient." Under these instructions, the Committee visited, and carefully examined all the school-houses under the care of the Board, and instituted a variety of experiments, for the purpose of determining on the best method of ventilation, to be generally introduced. In December, 1846, this Committee made a Report, for a copy of which we are indebted to the author, Dr. Clark, by whose agency and ingenuity mainly, these great improvements, both in ventilation and warming, hereafter detailed, have been introduced into the Public Schools of Boston. We are also indebted to Dr. Clark for the use of the cuts by which this Report, and a subsequent Report, are illustrated. We shall extract largely from these valuable documents, with the permission of the author. It will be seen that the views here recommended are substantially the same with those presented under the head of Ventilation, in this Treatise.

"Your Committee desire to call the attention of this Board, chiefly to the consideration of such general and well established Physiological and Philosophical principles, as have a distinct and intimate relation to the subject of this Report, and may be useful in its elucidation.

In doing this, there are two things of which they hope to satisfy the Board.

First. The necessity of a system of ventilation, which shall furnish, for all the pupils in the Public Schools of Boston, at all times, an abundant supply of an atmosphere entirely adapted, in its purity and temperature, to the purposes of respiration.

Secondly. The entire failure of the measures heretofore adopted to accomplish this desirable end.

The function of Respiration, is that process, by whose agency and constant operation, atmospheric air is admitted to the internal surface of the lungs, and there brought into close contact with the blood, for the purpose of effecting certain changes in it, which are essential to the continuance of life, and to maintain the integrity of the bodily organs. During this process, the atmosphere is constantly losing its oxygen, which is carried into the circulation, while, at the same time, it is becoming overcharged with the carbonic acid gas, which is continually thrown off from the lungs by respiration. This effete and deadly poison spreads itself rapidly into all parts of the room.

'M. Lassaigne has shown, by a series of investigations, that, contrary to a common opinion, the air in a room which has served for respiration without being renewed, contains carbonic acid alike in every part, above as well as below; the difference in proportion is but slight; and, where appreciable, there is some reason to believe that the carbonic acid is in greater quantity in the upper parts of a room. These experiments establish the very important fact, that all the air of a room must be changed, in order to restore its purity.'*

Dr. Wyman makes the following remarks on this point: 'Although carbonic acid is a much heavier gas than atmospheric air, it does not, from this cause, fall to the floor, but is equally diffused through the room. If the gas is formed on the floor without change of temperature, this diffusion may not take place

*Silliman's Journal for September, 1846.

rapidly. In the celebrated *Grotto del Cane*, carbonic acid escapes from the floor, and rises to a certain height, which is pretty well defined to the sight on the walls; below this line, a dog is destroyed, as if in water; above it, he is not affected. An analysis of the air above and below a brazier has been made, and it was found equally contaminated,—the former containing 4 65 per cent, and the latter 4.5 per cent. of carbonic acid.

'From the experiments of M. Devergie, who has devoted much attention to the poisonous effects of these gasses, it appears, that the heat disengaged from the combustion of charcoal, produces an equable mixture at all elevations in the apartment; and this state of things continues *as long as the room remains warm;* but after twelve hours or more, the carbonic acid sinks, and while that near the ceiling contains only a seventy-eighth, that near the floor contains nearly four times as much, or a nineteenth.' (*See Prac. Treat.* p. 77.)

If further proof be needed, to establish this position, we have other testimony. During respiration, a considerable quantity of vapor is discharged from the lungs. With regard to this, Mr. Tredgold says: 'if the air did not contain this mixture of vapor, it would not rise when expelled; and we have to admire one of those simple and beautiful arrangements, by which our all-wise Creator has provided against the repeated inhalation of the same air; for a mixture of azote, carbonic acid gas, and vapor, at the temperature it is ejected, is much lighter than common air even at the same temperature. Hence, it rises with such velocity, that it is entirely removed from us before it becomes diffused in the atmosphere. But as all gaseous bodies and vapors intimately mix when suffered to remain in contact, we see how important it is that ventilation should be continual; that the noxious gasses should be expelled as soon as generated; and that the ventilation should be from the upper part of a room.' (*See Tredgold on Warming, &c.*, p. 70.

If, to the foul effluvia ejected from the lungs, and accumulating in an apartment as badly ventilated as one of our school-rooms, be added the fouler matter thrown into the air from the insensible perspiration of so many individuals, many of whom are of uncleanly habits in person and apparel, it is apparent, that, in a very limited period of time, the air, in a perfectly close room, would become so entirely unfit for respiration, that, to all who were exposed to its influence, submersion in water could not be more certainly fatal.

The terrible effects of continued exposure to carbonic acid gas in a concentrated form, have been graphically described by Howard, in his account of the Black Hole of Calcutta. Of one hundred and forty-six persons, shut up in this place for only ten hours, without any other means of ventilation than one small opening, but twenty-six were found alive, when it came to be opened; and most of these suffered afterward from malignant fevers.

The fainting of feeble persons in crowded assemblies, and the asphyxia, so often produced in those who descend into deep wells without suitable precaution, are familiar examples of the same noxious effects of this poison.

In has been usually estimated, that every individual, by respiration, and the various exhalations from the body, consumes or renders unfit for use, at least from four to five cubic feet of air per minute. This is probably a low estimate; but authors of good repute differ considerably on this point. Mr. Tredgold's remarks, in this connection, are interesting and pertinent. 'The Physiological Chemists,' says he, 'have placed in our hands a more accurate means of measuring the deterioration of air in dwelling rooms, than by the best eudiometer; for they have shown, by repeated experiments on respiration, that a man consumes about thirty-two cubic inches of oxygen in a minute, which is replaced by an equal bulk of carbonic acid from the lungs. Now, the quantity of oxygen in atmospheric air is about one fifth; hence it will be found, that the quantity rendered unfit for supporting either combustion or animal life, by one man, in one minute, is nearly one hundred and sixty cubic inches, by respiration only. But a man makes twenty respirations in a minute, and draws in and expels forty inches of air at each respiration; consequently, the total quantity contaminated in one minute, by passing through the lungs, is eight hundred cubic inches.'* The other sources of impurity, which should be considered, will increase the estimate to the amount above stated. The amount of vapor discharged from the lungs, and thus added to the impurities of the air, is said to exceed six grains per minute. It has also been shown

*Tredgold on Warming, &c., p. 69

that air, which has been some time in contact with the skin, becomes almost entirely converted into carbonic acid.'

In estimating the amount of fresh air to be supplied, we ought not merely to look at what the system will tolerate, but that amount which will sustain the highest state of health for the longest time. Dr. Reid recommends at least ten cubic feet per minute, as a suitable average supply for each individual; and states that his estimate is the result of an 'extreme variety of experiments, made on hundreds of different constitutions, supplied one by one with given amounts of air, and also in numerous assemblies and meetings, where there were means for estimating the quantity of air with which they were provided.' (*Illustrations of Ventilation*, p. 176.)

These calculations refer to adults; but the greater delicacy of the organization of children, and their feebler ability to resist the action of deleterious agents, together with their greater rapidity of respiration, demand for them at least an equal supply. Proceeding upon this basis, and multiplying the amount required per minute, by the minutes of a school session of three hours, we have eighteen hundred cubic feet for each pupil, and for two hundred and fifty pupils—the average maximum attendance in one of our large school-rooms,—450,000 cubic feet, as the requisite quantity for each half-day. The rooms contain about 22,500 cubic feet only: so that a volume of air, equal to the whole cubic contents of each room, should be supplied and removed, in some way, ten times every three hours, in order to sustain the atmosphere in them at a point which is perfectly wholesome and salubrious. For such a purpose, the present means are so entirely inadequate, that it was found that the air of a room became tainted in ten or fifteen minutes. In ordinary cases, four per cent. of the air expelled from the lungs is carbonic acid. The presence of five or six per cent. will extinguish a lamp, and with difficulty support life. It is therefore certain, that the air would become deprived of all its best properties in one school session.

Le Blanc,—who examined many public and private buildings, in France and elsewhere,—speaking of the Chamber of Deputies, where sixty-four cubic feet of fresh air *per minute*, were allowed to each individual, states, that of 10,000 parts escaping by the ventilator, twenty-five were carbonic acid; while the quantity of this gas ordinarily present in the atmosphere, is but $\frac{4}{10000}$. Dr. Reid states, that he never gave less than thirty cubic feet of air a minute, to each member of the House of Commons, when the room was crowded; and once he introduced, for weeks successively, sixty cubic feet a minute, to each member.

The very earliest impressions received by your Committee, in their visits to the school-houses, satisfied them of their lamentable condition in regard to ventilation. In some of them, they found the air so bad, that it could be perceived before reaching the school-rooms, and in the open entries; and the children, as they passed up and down the stairs, had their clothes and hair perceptibly impregnated with the fœtid poison. And these circumstances existed in houses, where the open windows testified, upon our entrance, that the Masters had endeavored to improve the atmosphere by all the means placed at their disposal. To this custom,—*that of opening windows in school hours*,—the Instructors are compelled to resort, for relief; and this expedient, certainly, is the lesser of two very great evils. Your Committee found in their visits to the school-houses, during the severest days of last winter, that no school-room had less than three, and that more than half of them had at least seven windows open for the admission of pure air. Yet this dangerous and injurious practice only mitigates the evils of bad air, by creating others. It produces colds and inflammatory complaints, and the air still remains impure, offensive, and highly deleterious; sufficiently so, to affect the delicate organization of childhood, to blight its elasticity, and destroy that healthful physical action, on which depends the vigor of maturer years.

We have already referred to some of the more violent and sudden effects of exposure to air highly charged with these noxious gasses. There are others, which are more remote, and, to a superficial observer, less noticeable. But they are not, therefore, of less importance. The grave consequences of a long-continued exposure to an atmosphere but a little below the standard of natural purity, although not immediately incompatible with life, can hardly be over

stated. These effects are often so insidious in their approach, as hardly to attract notice; they are therefore the more necessary to be provided against in advance.

Children, confined in the atmosphere of these schools, soon lose the ruddy and cheerful complexions of perfect health which belong to youth, and acquire the sallow and depressed countenances which might reasonably be expected in over-worked factory operatives, or the tenants of apartments unvisited by the sun or air. We noticed in many faces, also, particularly towards the close of a school session, a feverish flush, so bright that it might easily deceive an inexperienced eye, and be mistaken for a healthy bloom. Alas! it was only a transient and ineffectual effort of nature to produce, by *overaction*, those salutary changes which she really wanted the *power* to accomplish.

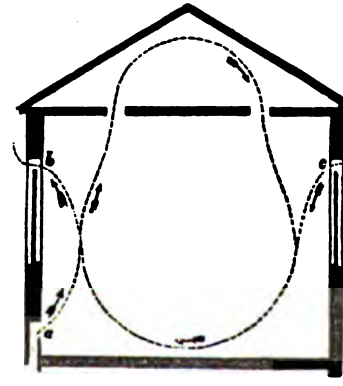
The condition of the pupils, depressed as they are by these influences, is constantly demanding increased exertions from their Instructors, while the requirements of the age place the standard of education at an elevation sufficiently difficult of access under the most favorable circumstances.

Your committee are satisfied, therefore, that the present state of the school-houses daily impairs the health of the pupils and Instructors, and the efficiency of the schools for the purposes of instruction. That its continuance will produce, not only immediate discomfort and disease, but, by its effect on the constitutions of the children, who must pass in them a large portion of those years most susceptible to physical injury, will directly and certainly reduce the amount of constitutional vigor hereafter to be possessed by that large mass of our population, which now and hereafter is to receive its education in these schools.

Although the atmosphere in the different school-houses varied very much in particular cases, either owing to the time of the visits, or from the amount of attention and intelligence of the Masters, yet in none of them was it at all satisfactory; not one of them was furnished with any useful or systematic means of ventilation. Every one, in order to be kept in a tolerably comfortable condition in this respect, required the frequent and laborious attention of the Instructors, and often to a degree which must have seriously interfered with their legitimate duties.

All of the rooms are provided with registers, in or near the ceiling, ostensibly for the purpose of discharging the foul air, but which your Committee believe to be almost entirely useless. The openings through the roof into the open air, where they exist, are so small, as to be quite inadequate to relieve the attics; so that the bad air must accumulate there, and, after becoming condensed be gradually forced back again, to be breathed over by the same lungs which have already rejected it. The condition of the apartments, after undergoing a repetition of such a process, for any length of time, can easily be imagined."

A reference to the subjoined diagram will explain at once the present state of the Ventilation of the School-Houses.



a. Heated air from furnace.
b. Hot air escaping through open window.
c. Cold air entering through open window.

It may be a matter of surprise, to some, perhaps, that the subject of ventilating our school-rooms has not long ago received the consideration necessary to remedy, or even to have prevented altogether, the evils of which we at present complain. But these evils have not always existed. It should be recollected, that the stoves and furnaces now in common use, are of comparatively modern date; and moreover, that the ample fireplaces, which they have displaced, always proved perfectly efficient ventilators, although, it is true, somewhat at the expense of comfort and fuel. But in closing the fireplaces, and substituting more economical methods of warming, evils of far greater magnitude have been entailed upon us.

It is evident, that, in order to carry into operation any complete system of ventilation, there must be connected with it some apparatus to regulate the temperature of the air to be admitted, as well as to ensure its ample supply. Your committee have accordingly examined, with much care, this part of the subject. A majority of the buildings are furnished with 'hot-air furnaces,' situated in the cellars; the remainder with stoves, placed in the school-rooms themselves. Most of the furnaces possess great heating powers,—indeed much greater than is necessary, if the heat generated by them were properly economized, or could be made available;—but, as now constructed, they are almost worse than useless, consuming large quantities of fuel, and, at the same time, so overheating the air which passes through them, as to deprive it of some of its best qualities, and render it unsuitable for respiration. It is difficult to define, with precision, and by analysis, the changes which take place in air subjected to the action of metallic surfaces, at a high temperature. The unpleasant dryness of the air can be detected, very readily, by the senses; and the headache, and other unpleasant sensations, experienced by those who breathe such an atmosphere, would seem to prove a deficiency of oxygen and electricity. The rapid oxydation and destruction of the ironwork of the furnaces themselves, also tends to confirm this supposition.

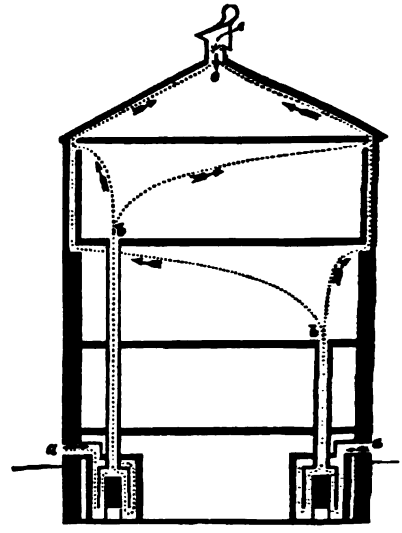
It has been ascertained, by repeated examinations, that the temperature of the air, when it arrives at the rooms, is often as high as 500° and 600° Fahrenheit. Of course, it is entirely impossible to diffuse air, thus heated, in the parts of the room occupied by the pupils. Much of it passes rapidly out of the windows, which may be open; the rest to the ceiling, where it remains until partially cooled, gradually finding its way down by the walls and closed windows, to the lower parts of the room. The consequences are, that, while much more caloric is sent into the apartment than is requisite, many of the pupils are compelled to remain in an atmosphere which is at once cold and stagnant.

The source of the cold air for supplying the furnaces, is not always free from objection; some being drawn from the neighborhood of drains, cesspools, &c. This is a radical defect, as it must inevitably affect the whole air of the building. The boxes, which admit the cold air to the furnaces, are much too contracted; some of them being only a few inches square, when their capacity ought to be nearly as many feet. The air enters the 'cold-air' chamber of the furnace, at its top, whence it is intended to be carried down between thin brick walls, (which *should be cold*, but which are often heated to 300° Fahrenheit,) to the lower part of the furnace, and thence into the 'hot-air' chambers, and so on to the rooms above. It is obvious that the 'hot-air' chamber must be heated to a temperature far beyond that of the 'cold-air' chamber, in order to compel the air, against its own natural tendencies, to pass into it with any velocity or volume, and the very attempt to accomplish this, almost defeats itself; as, by driving the fire for this purpose, the 'cold-air' chamber becomes still hotter, so that at last the contest is decided only by the greater calorific capabilities which the iron plates possess over the brick wall. At any rate, the temperature of the iron is frequently raised to a *red* and even a *white heat*, by running the furnaces in the ordinary way. This soon destroys them, and they require consequently to be frequently renewed. In addition to all this waste of fuel and material, the folly of attempting, in any way, to warm school-rooms whose windows are freely opened to the admission of an atmosphere, at the low temperature of our winter climate, may well claim a passing notice.

The following diagrams will exhibit the mode in which the two houses already referred to, are now ventilated.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ELIOT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

a. a. Cold air channels to furnaces.
b. b. Heated air.
The arrows show the currents of air from the furnaces to the outlet at the roof.
c. Gas burner.

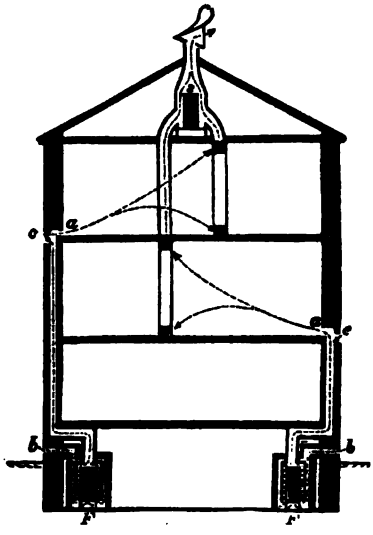


This house was entirely without any external opening through the roof. The other arrangements in it presented nothing peculiar. The 'exits and the entrances' were all as deficient in capacity as usual. The first care was to perforate the roof. This was accordingly done, and an opening of sufficient size made to carry a turn-cap of two and a half feet in diameter in its smallest part. The cold-air shaft, with an area of only one hundred and forty square inches, was enlarged so as to measure six hundred, or about four times its former size. The necessary repairing of one furnace, gave us an opportunity to enlarge its air-chamber very considerably. Water, for evaporation, was placed within a chamber of the furnace. The registers in the rooms opening into the attic, being below the ceiling, were raised to the highest point, and increased in size.

Although we think the want of connection of the cowl at the roof with the registers from the rooms by closed tubes, a decided disadvantage, we were satisfied, on the whole, with the results; as the alterations gave great relief. These changes were made during the month of February, 1846, and the only inconvenience suffered during the winter, was the occasional rise of the temperature to five or ten degrees beyond the desired point. The atmosphere has lost its bad odor almost entirely, and is of course much more agreeable. A gas burner has lately been placed in the throat of the ventilator, for use when extra power is needed.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ENDICOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

This house, as well as the preceding, was heated by furnaces in the cellar, one for each room. Its ventilating flues were arranged in a better manner than usual, opening into little separate chimneys which pierced the roof near the copings. But they had proved to be insufficient, both on account of their size and situation. They were also affected sensibly by down-gusts, which completely reversed their action in certain states of the atmosphere and wind.



a. a. Currents of heated air passing to the ventilating flues.
b. b. Cold air channels.
c. c. Cold air valves opening upon the hot-air currents.
F. F. Furnaces.
S. Stove in ventilator in the attic.

After enlarging the cold-air shaft to a proper size, it was thought best, (as the hot-air pipe passed through the brick wall, so that it could not easily be altered,) to make an opening through the outer wall directly behind the register which delivered the hot-air into the room. An aperture of sixteen inches square, commanded by a revolving damper, was therefore cut. It has been found to answer exceedingly well; as we now get a much larger volume, of more temperate and purer air.

For the delivery of the bad air, the following arrangements were adopted. Large wooden boxes, or air-shafts, were carried from the floor of each story into the attic, where they communicate, by closed metal pipes of the same size, with a tin cylinder, three feet in diameter, which is continued to the roof, terminating there in a large cowl. There are openings, at the top and bottom of each room, into the ventilating shafts, which can be used separately, or together, as the state of the atmosphere requires.

An air-tight coal stove, placed within the drum, in the attic, completes the apparatus. This has been only recently constructed; but from results already produced, there is no doubt of its entire ability to accomplish all that is desirable.

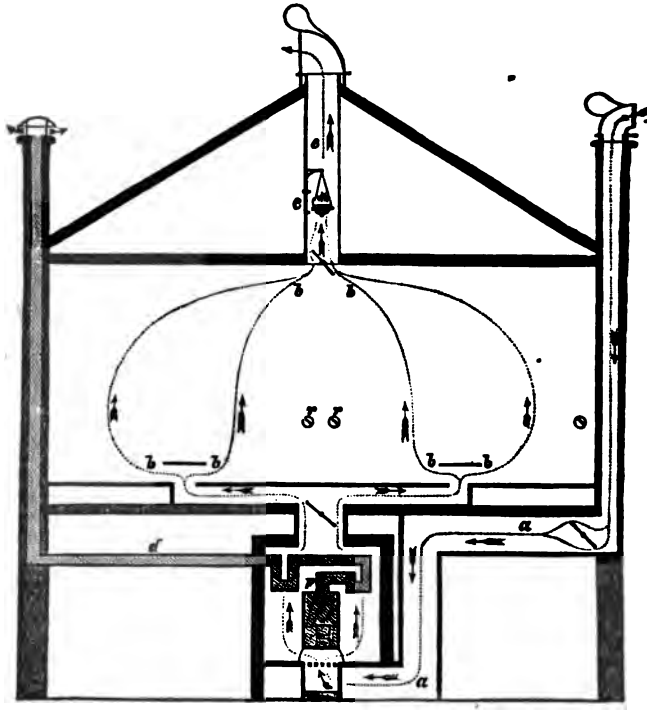
The same general statements which have been made with regard to the Grammar School-houses, will apply to the Primary School-houses. They are undoubtedly in as bad a condition, to say the least; and from their smaller capacities in proportion to the number of pupils which they contain, require particular attention.

For ventilation of these, and the Recitation rooms, which resemble them in structure and size, your Committee recommend the use of the double fireplace* or the Ventilating Stove, which will be hereafter described. If the latter be used, ventilating flues, opening at the ceiling, must be carried out of the roof.

It only remains for your Committee to describe, more particularly, the system of ventilation which they consider to be, in its general features, best adapted for the school-houses under the care of the Board. Much of it has already been anticipated in other parts of this Report; and the following plan will show, at a glance, better than any description can do, its particular features.

* See page 38 of this Essay for a diagram and description.

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE BEST GENERAL PLAN FOR WARMING AND VENTILATING THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSES.



a. a. Cold-air channel, three feet in diameter, opening underneath the Furnace.

F. Furnace, three feet in diameter in a brick chamber ten feet square. The walls twelve inches thick.

d. Smoke flue, surmounted with Mr. Tredgold's chimney top.

b. b. b. b. Currents of warmed air, passing from the furnace, through a main flue of four feet in diameter, which supplies two branch flues. From these the air is diffused into all parts of the room, by means of the tablets which are placed over the mouths of the registers.

e. The ventilating shaft, two and a half feet in diameter, into which the foul gasses are collected, and from which they are finally discharged into the open air.

c. An Argand Lamp, to be lighted from the attic.

r. r. r. Registers, by means of which the whole circulation is controlled.

The Committee recommend attention to the following *general rules for Ventilation and Warming.*

1. The air must be taken from a pure source. The higher parts of the building are the best, as thereby all impurities, which often contaminate air taken from near the surface of the ground, are avoided.

2. In order to ensure a constant and abundant supply, the air shaft must be surmounted with a cowl or hood of some kind, with its mouth turned *towards the wind.*

3. The fresh air should in all cases be carried entirely beneath the furnace.

If the cellar is wet and the situation low, the underground culvert or channel should be of brick, laid in cement.

4. The furnace chamber should be so large that it can be entered at any time, without the necessity of taking down walls, for the purpose of repairs, or to observe the temperature. A large earthen pan for the evaporation of water should never be omitted. This should be kept always perfectly clean, and the water required to be frequently changed.

5. A thermometer should be constantly at hand, and the *temperature in the warm-air chamber should never be allowed to exceed that of boiling water.* A still lower temperature is often desirable. If this point is secured, the hot air can be conducted with perfect safety under floors, or into any part of the building, for its better diffusion.

6. The openings for the admission of the warm air into the rooms, should be as numerous as possible. The long platform occupied by the teachers, by being perforated in front for its whole length, would be an excellent diffusing surface

7. Openings of ample size must be made in the highest points of the ceiling, to be connected at the top of the roof with a turn-cap or louvre, the former being always surmounted with a vane. It is better that the ceiling should be perforated at its centre, and there is no objection to running the ventilating shaft, at first, horizontally, if the perpendicular and terminal portion of it is of considerable length.

8. *It is highly important to have a power of some sort, within the apparatus at its top*, for the purpose of compelling constant action, and of increasing the force of the apparatus, whenever the state of the weather, or the crowding of the room, render it necessary.* For this purpose, the most convenient and economical means are furnished by a gas burner, an Argand lamp, or a stove; and one of these should be in constant readiness for use, when neither the velocity of the wind, or the low temperature of the external aimosphere are sufficient to produce the desired effect.

9. All the openings and flues for the admission of pure air, and the discharge of the foul air, should be of the *maximum* size; that is, they should be calculated for the *largest numbers* which the apartment is ever intended to accommodate.

10. Valves must be placed in all the flues, and so arranged as to be easily regulated without leaving the rooms into which they open.

11. The best average temperature for school-rooms, is from 64° to 68° Fahrenheit; this range including that of the healthiest climates in their best seasons.

For the purpose of summer ventilation, and for occasional use in moderate weather, fireplaces of good size should be constructed in all the new houses, at least. They should always be double, and furnished with large air chambers, which communicate with the open air. When not in use, they must be closed with tight boards or shutters, as they would otherwise interfere with the regular ventilation.

With these arrangements, intelligently controlled by the Teachers, your Committee believe that an atmosphere will be secured which will be perfectly agreeable and salubrious; which will lighten the labors of the Teachers, and promote the comfort, health, and happiness, of the thousands of children who are daily congregated in our Public Schools."

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* This in practice has not been found necessary, although it may be sometimes.

"In order to be fully satisfied, the Committee visited the Endicott School, where the apparatus was in operation. The day was exceedingly wet and disagreeable, and yet the air of the rooms was found in an unobjectionable condition. The masters fully sustained the representations of the petitioners; and from their statements, as well as from their own observations, the Committee were satisfied of the beneficial effects of said apparatus.

In order, however, to have a more full investigation of the matter, the Committee, on a subsequent day, visited the Johnson School and the Boylston School. The day was dry and cold, and they found the air in the Johnson School in a tolerably good condition. This is a girls' school; and it is well known that the pupils in such schools are neater, and attend in cleaner and more tidy apparel, than the pupils in the boys' schools.

In the Boylston School, however, the Committee found the air very disagreeable and oppressive; and they could not but feel the importance of executing some plan of relief."

If the Committee of Ways and Means,—or whatever the money-compelling power may be called—in every city, and town, and district, would satisfy themselves by actual examination, of the necessity of a more perfect system of ventilation in all school-rooms, or in all public halls where a large number of human beings are congregated for a considerable length of time, and where fires or lamps are burning, a reform would be speedily introduced in this respect.

With the means thus placed at their disposal, the Committee applied themselves diligently to the duty of ventilating the school-houses—and at the close of the year, they had the satisfaction of announcing in their Final Report, "that the Grammar School-houses of Boston are now in a better condition in respect to their ventilation, than any other Public Schools in the world." The Committee thus sum up the results of their labors.

"The diversity of arrangement and the modifications in our plans which we have been compelled by circumstances to adopt, have had their advantages, and enabled us to arrive at the best results, and to satisfy ourselves entirely in regard to the particular *set of apparatus* which we can recommend with confidence for future use as decidedly the most effective and convenient. We have therefore furnished drawings and specifications of the set of apparatus which we recommend.

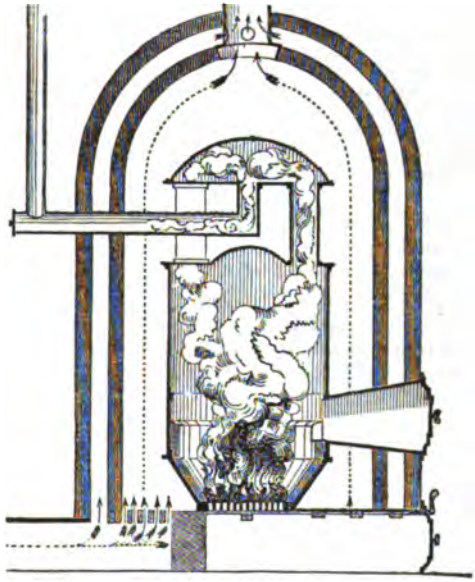
Chilson's Furnace.

Your Committee have made themselves acquainted not only with all the Furnaces which have been manufactured in this place, and its neighborhood, but with all those which have been exhibited here recently. Most of them show much ingenuity of contrivance and excellence of workmanship; but are all, so far as we can judge, inferior in many respects, to the one invented by Mr. Chilson, a model and plans of which we now exhibit, and recommend as superior to all others.

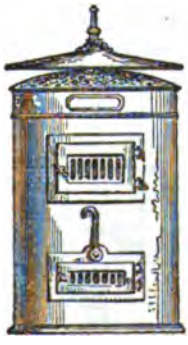
It is simple in its structure, easily managed, will consume the fuel perfectly, and with a *moderate* fire. It is fitted for wood or coal. The fire place is broad and shallow, and is lined with soapstone or fire-brick, which not only makes it perfectly safe and durable, but modifies very materially the usual effect of the fire upon the iron pot.

The principal radiating surfaces are wrought iron, of a suitable thickness for service, while at the same time the heat of the smallest fire is communicated immediately to the air chamber. The mode of setting this Furnace we consider essential; more especially the plan of admitting the air to the furnace at its lowest point, as it then rises naturally into the apartments above. This

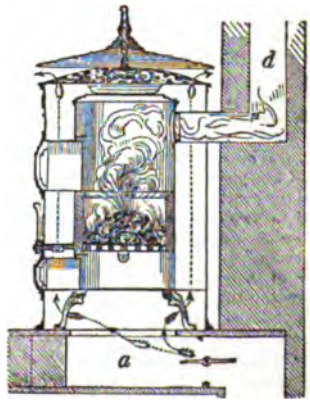
process commences as soon as the temperature is raised even a single degree. The outer walls remain cold; the floor above is not endangered, and the whole building is rapidly filled with an atmosphere which is at once salubrious and delightful.



Section of Chilson's Furnace.



Elevation.



Section.

Ventilating Stove.

For the houses which we found without the Hot Air Furnaces, as also for the Recitation and other single rooms, the invention of a Stove which shoul

answer the same purpose became essential. One was therefore contrived; and having been found in its earlier and ruder forms to be of great utility, it has since been improved in its appearance, as well as in the convenience of its management.

These Stoves are composed of two cylinders, the *inner* containing a fire chamber, which is lined with soap-stone or fire brick, while the *outer* constitutes a chamber for warming the air, which is introduced into it beneath the inner cylinder, from an air box directly connected with the external atmosphere.

They possess the following advantages:—

1. They are in fact *furnaces*, having distinct and capacious air chambers.
2. They insure, when properly set, that *supply of fresh air* which is *indispensable to the proper ventilation* of any apartment.
3. The Regulating Distributor, which is movable or fixed, as may be desired, determines with great accuracy the amount and temperature of the admitted air.
4. The outer cylinder is never hot enough to burn the person or clothing, or to be uncomfortable to those who are situated in its immediate vicinity.
5. They are constructed with the utmost regard to efficiency, durability, compactness, and neatness of appearance.

These Stoves have been furnished to the Schools whenever your Committee have required their use, and at manufacturers' prices, without any profit whatever to the inventor and patentee.

They may be used with advantage in the largest rooms, when the cellars are unfit for Furnaces, or when it is preferred to have the fire in the room itself. The Johnson, Wells, Hawes, and Winthrop School-houses are warmed entirely by them.

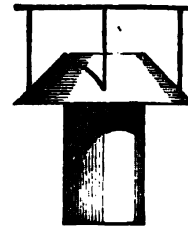
The discharging ventiducts have been made in various ways; some of wood, some of metal, and others of 'lath and plaster.' Some have opened at the ceiling only, and in but one part of the room, while others have been equally divided at opposite sides of the apartment. Our rule is this:—If the Heating Apparatus is at one end of an oblong room, the ventiduct is placed at the opposite. If the stove or furnace flue is at the middle of the longest side, the ventiducts are placed at each end, and are of course reduced to one half the size of the single one.

The *best* manner of constructing them is shown by the drawing, *Fig.* 1, and described on the following page.

There is great economy in carrying the boxes to the floor in all cases. In this way the room can be kept warm and the air pure in the coldest and most windy days.

The registers at the top and bottom can be used separately or together, as may be desired.

It is necessary and advantageous to apply some kind of cap or other covering upon the ventiducts where they terminate above the roof. It is necessary as a protection from the rain and the down blasts of wind, and it is also very advantageous to be enabled in this way to avail ourselves of the power of the wind to create an active upward current. We used at first the turncap or cowl invented by Mr. Espy, and with satisfactory results. It is undoubtedly the best movable top known; but is noisy, and somewhat liable to get out of working order. These objections to the movable tops have long been known, and various stationary tops have been invented, and have been partially successful. An improved Stationary Top, or Ejecting Ventilator, as it is called, has been invented during the past year by Mr. Emerson. It is shown in the drawing, and consists of the frustrum of a cone attached to the top of a tube, open in its whole extent, and surmounted by a fender which is supported upon rods, and answers the double purpose of keeping out the rain and of so directing or turning a blast of wind upon the structure, as that in what-



Ejecting Ventilator.

ever direction it fall, the effect, that of causing a strong upward draft, will be very uniform and constant.

Being satisfied that this Stationary Ejector possessed all the advantages of the best tops hitherto known, without the disadvantages of either of them, we have adopted it for several of the houses last ventilated, and find it in all respects satisfactory. We therefore recommend it for general use.

The Injector may generally be dispensed with, but in situations unfavorable for introducing air, it may be sometimes found convenient, or even necessary. [Mr. Emerson recommends the use of the Injector whenever a ventilating stove or furnace is used, so as to secure the admission of a quantity of pure air, warmed by the heating surfaces of the stove or furnace, equal to the quantity of air rendered impure by respiration withdrawn by the Ejector. He refuses to allow his ventilators to be placed upon any school-house which is not supplied with fresh warm air.]



Injecting Ventilators.

Ventiducts.

The discharging ventiducts should be situated at the part of the rooms most distant from the stove or register of the furnace, and should always, if possible, be constructed in or upon an *interior* wall or partition, and an outer brick wall must, if possible, be avoided. They should be made of thoroughly seasoned sound pine boards, smoothed on the inner sides, and put together with two-inch iron screws. The outside finish may be of lath and plaster, or they may be projected backwards into a closet or entry, as shown in Figure 3. They must be carried entirely to the floor, and should be fitted at the top and bottom with a swivel blind, whose capacity is equal to that of the ventiduct into which it opens. This blind may be governed by stay rods or pulleys. The elevation gives a view of the ventiducts for a building of three stories, and shows the best mode of packing them, so as to avoid injuring the appearance of the rooms.

These ventiducts must be *kept entirely separate* to the main discharger at the roof, as any other arrangement would impair or destroy their utility.

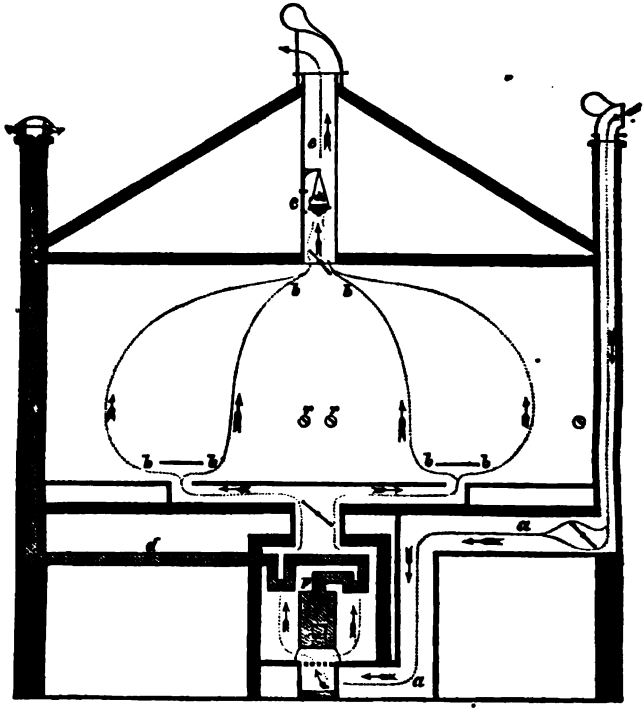
The size of the ventilators and ventiducts must correspond to the capacity of the room. and the number it is intended to accommodate.

A room containing sixty scholars is found to require a discharging duct of fourteen inches in diameter. A room for one hundred scholars requires the tube to be eighteen inches; and a room for two hundred scholars requires it to be twenty-four inches.

The *fresh air ventiducts should exceed in capacity* those for carrying off the impure air by about *fifty per cent.;* so that there will then always be a surplus or plenum supply, and the little currents of cold which press in at the crevices of the doors and windows will be entirely prevented.

The section shown in Fig. 3 exhibits a very convenient mode of bringing the cold air to the ventilating stoves in a three story building in connection with the smoke flues.

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE BEST GENERAL PLAN FOR WARMING AND VENTILATING THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSES.



a. a. Cold-air channel, three feet in diameter, opening underneath the Furnace.

F. Furnace, three feet in diameter in a brick chamber ten feet square. The walls twelve inches thick.

d. Smoke flue, surmounted with Mr. Tredgold's chimney top.

b. b. b. b. Currents of warmed air, passing from the furnace, through a main flue of four feet in diameter, which supplies two branch flues. From these the air is diffused into all parts of the room, by means of the tablets which are placed over the mouths of the registers.

e. The ventilating shaft, two and a half feet in diameter, into which the foul gasses are collected, and from which they are finally discharged into the open air.

c. An Argand Lamp, to be lighted from the attic.

r. r. r. Registers, by means of which the whole circulation is controlled.

The Committee recommend attention to the following *general rules for Ventilation and Warming.*

1. The air must be taken from a pure source. The higher parts of the building are the best, as thereby all impurities, which often contaminate air taken from near the surface of the ground, are avoided.

2. In order to ensure a constant and abundant supply, the air shaft must be surmounted with a cowl or hood of some kind, with its mouth turned *towards the wind.*

3. The fresh air should in all cases be carried entirely beneath the furnace.

If the cellar is wet and the situation low, the underground culvert or channel should be of brick, laid in cement.

4. The furnace chamber should be so large that it can be entered at any time, without the necessity of taking down walls, for the purpose of repairs, or to observe the temperature. A large earthen pan for the evaporation of water should never be omitted. This should be kept always perfectly clean, and the water required to be frequently changed.

5. A thermometer should be constantly at hand, and the *temperature in the warm-air chamber should never be allowed to exceed that of boiling water.* A still lower temperature is often desirable. If this point is secured, the hot air can be conducted with perfect safety under floors, or into any part of the building, for its better diffusion.

6. The openings for the admission of the warm air into the rooms, should be as numerous as possible. The long platform occupied by the teachers, by being perforated in front for its whole length, would be an excellent diffusing surface

7. Openings of ample size must be made in the highest points of the ceiling, to be connected at the top of the roof with a turn-cap or louvre, the former being always surmounted with a vane. It is better that the ceiling should be perforated at its centre, and there is no objection to running the ventilating shaft, at first, horizontally, if the perpendicular and terminal portion of it is of considerable length.

8. *It is highly important to have a power of some sort, within the apparatus at its top,* for the purpose of compelling constant action, and of increasing the force of the apparatus, whenever the state of the weather, or the crowding of the room, render it necessary.* For this purpose, the most convenient and economical means are furnished by a gas burner, an Argand lamp, or a stove; and one of these should be in constant readiness for use, when neither the velocity of the wind, or the low temperature of the external aimosphere are sufficient to produce the desired effect.

9. All the openings and flues for the admission of pure air, and the discharge of the foul air, should be of the *maximum* size; that is, they should be calculated for the *largest numbers* which the apartment is ever intended to accommodate.

10. Valves must be placed in all the flues, and so arranged as to be easily regulated without leaving the rooms into which they open.

11. The best average temperature for school-rooms, is from 64° to 68° Fahrenheit; this range including that of the healthiest climates in their best seasons.

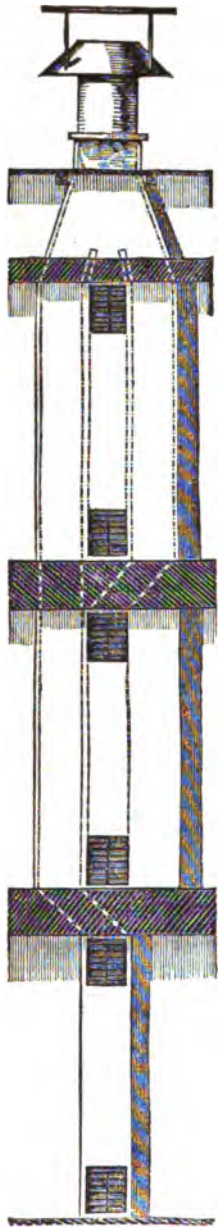
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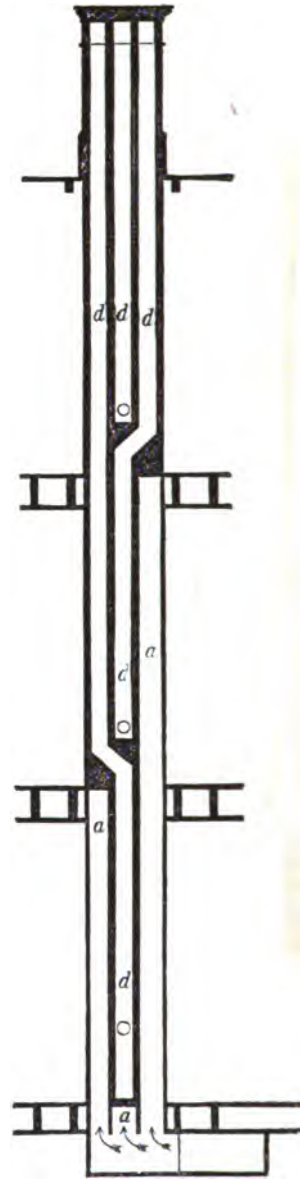
* This in practice has not been found necessary, although it may be sometimes.

FIGURE 1.



Elevation of Ventiducts

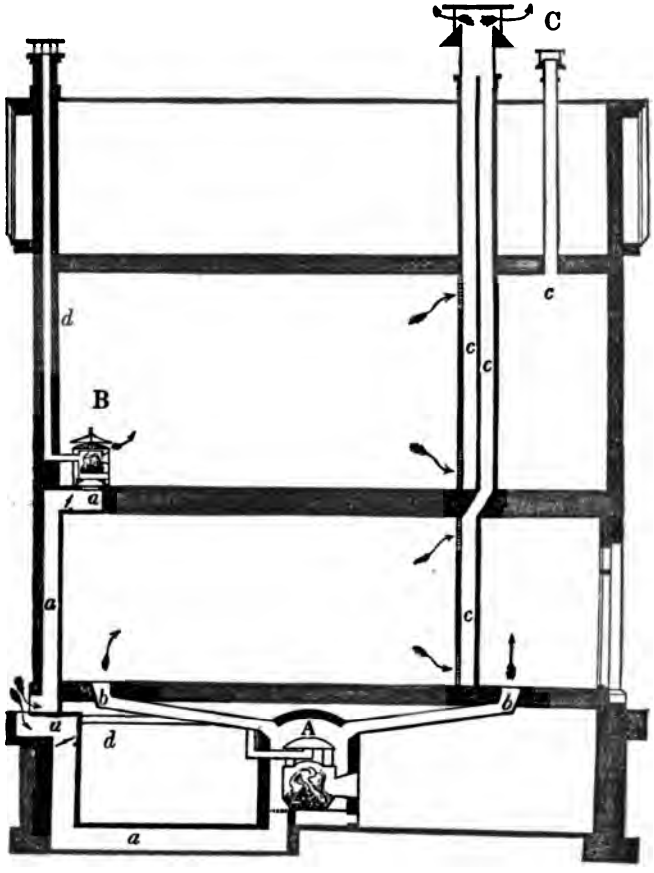
FIGURE 2.



a. Cold air ducts.
d. Smoke flues

The following section, (Fig. 3,) and plans (Fig's. 4 and 5,) exhibit at one view an example of a building of two stories warmed and ventilated by the apparatus and in the manner recommended.

FIGURE 3.

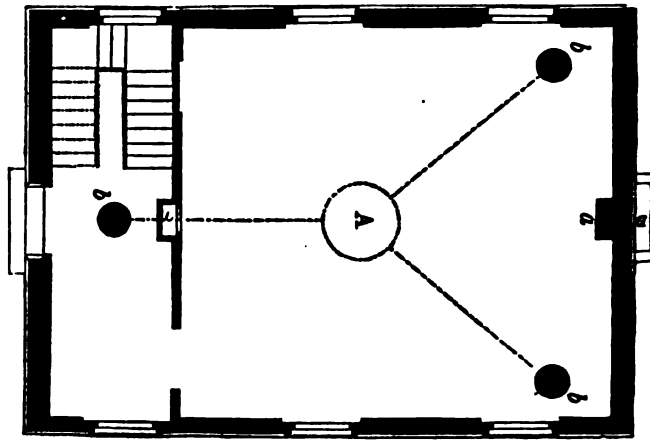


A. Chilson's Furnace.
B. The Boston School Stove.
C. Emerson's Ejector.
a. Cold or fresh air ducts.
b. Warmed air ducts.
c. Impure air ducts.
d. Smoke flues.

The letters on the plans correspond to those in the section.

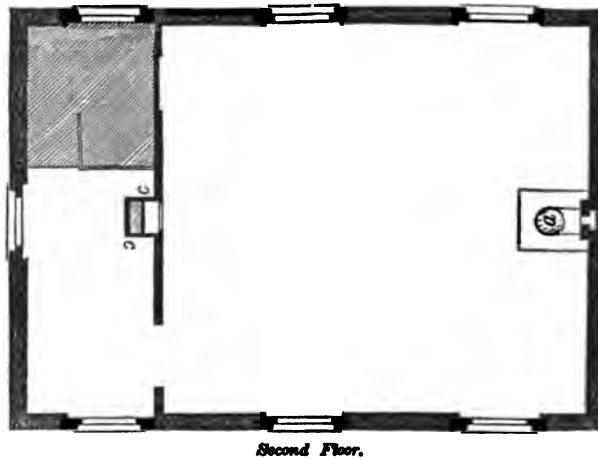
Plans of First and Second Floors.

FIGURE 4.



First Floor.

FIGURE 5.



Second Floor.

A. Furnace. a. a. a. Fresh air ducts. b. b. b. Warm air registers. c. c. c. Impure air ducts.

The modes of ventilation and heating above described and illustrated, were unanimously approved by the school committee, and recommended to the city government, for introduction into the school-houses which may be hereafter erected.

The Committee append to their Report directions for the management of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventiducts, to which they request the attention of the masters of the Public Schools, in conformity to the rule of the Board, which requires their attention to the Ventilation of the School-houses under their care.

Rules relative to the use of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventilators.

1. *To kindle the fire.*—Close the upper, and open the lower registers of the ventiducts; close the upper door of the stove or furnace and open the lower door; place the cover of the stove one or two inches up.
2. *After the room becomes warm*—Raise the cover of the stove three or five inches; close the lower door of the stove and open the upper door; open the registers of the ventiducts about half their width.
3. *If the room become too warm*—Open the registers full width, and raise the cover of the stove high up, keeping the upper door of the stove or furnace open, and the lower door closed.
4. *If the room become too cool*—Close the upper registers, (for a short time only;) close the upper door of the stove and open the lower door; drop the cover down within two inches of the sides.
5. Never close the top of the stove entirely down, while there is any fire therein.
6. At night, on leaving the room, let the cover of the stove down within one inch of the sides; close the lower door, and open the upper one; place all the registers open about half their width.
7. Fill the water basins every morning, and wash them twice a week.

The fires should be kept, if possible, through the night, by covering the coal. The coal to be white ash.

Construction of Ventiducts.

Since the first edition of this work was published, the following note has been received from Dr. Clark, in relation to the structure of the discharging ventiducts.

BOSTON, Feb. 12th, 1849.

HENRY BARNARD, ESQ.:

My Dear Sir,—Will you allow me to ask your attention to a single matter relating to ventilation? I refer to the construction, situation, and proper materials of the ventiducts which are intended to carry off the foul air. In almost all instances within my knowledge, excepting in the buildings in this place, which have been ventilated within two or three years past, these discharging ducts are made of *brick* or stone, being often, therefore, also built in the outer wall. If there is any peculiar advantage in our school house ventilation, its success is very much owing to the manner of locating and constructing these same ejecting ventiducts.

The brick ducts always operate *downwards;* that is to say, the air has a constant *tendency to fall* in them, and they will never "draw" in the proper or *upward* direction, with the best turncap or top known, unless there is a high wind, or unless *artificial* power, such as a *fire*, or a fan wheel be put in requisition. Now the contrary is the fact with the thin *wooden, or lath-and-plaster, interior ventiduct*. The current is always in the right or *upward* direction. They are warmed to the *temperature of the room*, and when provided with a proper top will operate *in all seasons*. Although the currents will *vary* in power and rapidity, yet, while almost all our ventiducts are provided, and should be, with means of heating by lamps or otherwise, I believe they have scarcely had occasion to light them. So that any impressions formed in relation to this part of the subject from the English, and particularly the French methods of ventilating school-houses, when the brick flues are always used, must be entirely erroneous. The days in which the fires in the French flues *would be forgotten* and omitted, or *be permitted to go out*, would far exceed the number of those in which our ventiducts would not act in the most perfect manner *without any power at all*.

I would not have troubled you, but that I know this point, from much practical experience, to be worthy of especial attention, and in case you should publish a new edition of your work on school-houses, I hope it may be considered.

I am, dear sir,

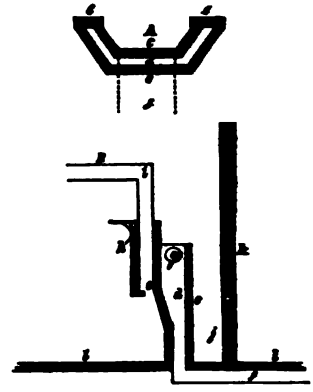
Yours very truly,

HENRY G. CLARK

Double Fire-Place for Warming and Ventilation.

The following plan of warming and ventilating a school-room is recommended by Mr. George B. Emerson in the School and Schoolmaster. The position of the proposed fire-place may be seen in the Plans of School-rooms by the same eminent teacher, published on page 50 of this work.

Warming.—In a suitable position, pointed out in the plates, near the door, let a common brick fireplace be built. Let this be inclosed, on the back and on each side, by a casing of brick, leaving, between the fireplace and the casing, a space of four or five inches, which will be heated through the back and jambs. Into this space let the air be admitted from beneath by a box 24 inches wide and 6 or 8 deep, leading from the external atmosphere by an opening beneath the front door, or at some other convenient place. The brick casing should be continued up as high as six or eight inches above the top of the fireplace, where it may open into the room by lateral orifices, to be commanded by iron doors, through which the heated air will enter the room. If these are lower, part of the warm air will find its way into the fireplace. The brick chimney should rise at least two or three feet above the hollow back, and may be surmounted by a flat iron, soap-stone, or brick top, with an opening for a smoke-pipe, which may be thence conducted to any part of the room. The smoke-pipe should rise a foot, then pass to one side, and then over a passage, to the opposite extremity of the room, where it should ascend perpendicularly, and issue above the roof. The fireplace should be provided with iron doors, by which it may be completely closed.



Fireplace.

A. Horizontal section. B. Perpendicular section. *c.* Brick walls, 4 inches thick. *d.* Air space between the walls. *e.* Solid fronts of masonry. *f.* Air box for supply of fresh air, extending beneath the floor to the front door. *g.* Openings on the sides of the fireplace, for the heated air to pass into the room. *h.* Front of the fireplace and mantelpiece. *i.* Iron smoke flue, 8 inches diameter. *j.* Space between the fireplace and wall. *k* Partition wall. *l.* Floor.

The advantages of this double fireplace are, 1. the fire, being made against brick, imparts to the air of the apartment none of the deleterious qualities which are produced by a common iron stove, but gives the pleasant heat of an open fireplace; 2. none of the heat of the fuel will be lost, as the smoke-pipe may be extended far enough to communicate nearly all the heat contained in the smoke; 3. the current of air heated within the hollow back, and constantly pouring into the room, will diffuse an equable heat throughout every part; 4. the pressure of the air of the room will be constantly outward, little cold will enter by cracks and windows, and the fireplace will have no tendency to smoke; 5. by means of the iron doors, the fire may be completely controlled, increased or diminished at pleasure, with the advantages of an air-tight stove. For that purpose, there must be a valve or slide near the bottom of one of the doors.

If, instead of this fireplace, a common stove be adopted, it should be placed above the air-passage, which may be commanded by a valve or register in the floor, so as to admit or exclude air.

XI. NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1865.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEVENTH SESSION, OR SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING, held at Harrisburg, Penn., August 16, 17, and 18, 1865.

Wednesday, August 16, 1865.

The ASSOCIATION assembled in the Court-house, Harrisburg, Pa., at 9½ A. M.

The President, Prof. S. S. GREENE, of Providence, R. I., called the meeting to order and invited Rev. Dr. DEWITT, of the city, to open the session with prayer.

The President appointed Hon. C. R. COBURN, of Pa., and Prof. D. N. CAMP, of Conn., to invite Governor CURTIN; and Hon. L. VAN BOKKELEN and Prof. J. P. WICKERSHAM to invite Governor BRADFORD, of Maryland, and the Hon. THADDEUS STEVENS, of Penn., to be present.

Music by an association composed of the choirs of the several churches.

A letter was received from the State Librarian inviting the Association to visit the library. On motion, the invitation was accepted and thanks returned.

The following named persons were received as delegates:—

From New York State Teachers' Association—JAMES CRUIKSHANK, Corresponding Secretary; EDWARD DANFORTH, Vice-President; J. B. THOMSON, T. S. LAMBERT, A. N. HUSTED, GEO. H. BENJAMIN.

From Delaware—Rev. L. COLEMAN, of Wilmington.

From Teachers' Association of Canada West—Hon. J. B. DIXON.

The Secretary made several announcements concerning excursions and returns on railroads.

His Excellency, A. G. CURTIN, Governor of Pennsylvania, was now introduced, and in a brief and eloquent speech welcomed the Association heartily to the State. The President happily responded.

Mr. JAMES G. CLARK favored the audience with a song.

Messrs. Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., and E. DANFORTH, of Troy, N. Y., were, on motion of Mr. W. E. SHELDON, of Mass., appointed Assistant Secretaries.

The President then presented his *Annual Address*, after which Governor BRADFORD, of Maryland, addressed the Association.

On motion of Dr. J. S. HART, of New Jersey, a committee of five, with the President as chairman, was appointed to report on that portion of the President's address relating to a National System of Education—Prof. S. S. GREENE, of R. I.; Dr. J. S. HART, of N. J.; Hon. C. R. COBURN, of Pa.; Rev. B. G. NORTHROP, of Mass.; and Prof. RICHARD EDWARDS, of Illinois, committee.

Messrs. RICHARD EDWARDS, of Ill.; D. B. HAGAR, of Mass.; E. A. SHELDON, of N. Y.; and Z. RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., were, on motion of the Secretary, appointed a Committee on New Members.

The President, on motion of Mr. Z. RICHARDS, named the following gentle-

"In order to be fully satisfied, the Committee visited the Endicott School, where the apparatus was in operation. The day was exceedingly wet and disagreeable, and yet the air of the rooms was found in an unobjectionable condition. The masters fully sustained the representations of the petitioners; and from their statements, as well as from their own observations, the Committee were satisfied of the beneficial effects of said apparatus.

In order, however, to have a more full investigation of the matter, the Committee, on a subsequent day, visited the Johnson School and the Boylston School. The day was dry and cold, and they found the air in the Johnson School in a tolerably good condition. This is a girls' school; and it is well known that the pupils in such schools are neater, and attend in cleaner and more tidy apparel, than the pupils in the boys' schools.

In the Boylston School, however, the Committee found the air very disagreeable and oppressive; and they could not but feel the importance of executing some plan of relief."

If the Committee of Ways and Means,—or whatever the money-compelling power may be called—in every city, and town, and district, would satisfy themselves by actual examination, of the necessity of a more perfect system of ventilation in all school-rooms, or in all public halls where a large number of human beings are congregated for a considerable length of time, and where fires or lamps are burning, a reform would be speedily introduced in this respect.

With the means thus placed at their disposal, the Committee applied themselves diligently to the duty of ventilating the school-houses—and at the close of the year, they had the satisfaction of announcing in their Final Report, "that the Grammar School-houses of Boston are now in a better condition in respect to their ventilation, than any other Public Schools in the world." The Committee thus sum up the results of their labors.

"The diversity of arrangement and the modifications in our plans which we have been compelled by circumstances to adopt, have had their advantages, and enabled us to arrive at the best results, and to satisfy ourselves entirely in regard to the particular *set of apparatus* which we can recommend with confidence for future use as decidedly the most effective and convenient. We have therefore furnished drawings and specifications of the set of apparatus which we recommend.

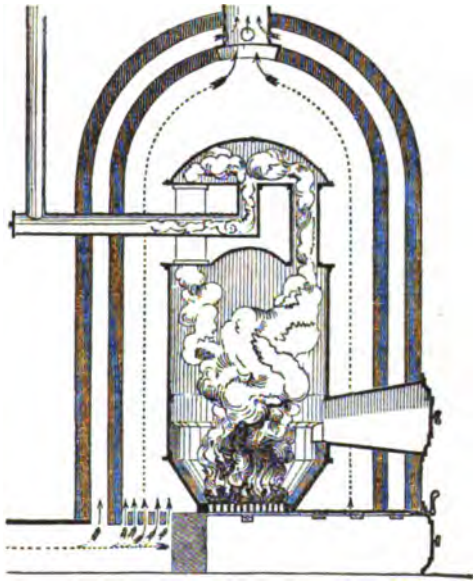
Chilson's Furnace.

Your Committee have made themselves acquainted not only with all the Furnaces which have been manufactured in this place, and its neighborhood, but with all those which have been exhibited here recently. Most of them show much ingenuity of contrivance and excellence of workmanship; but are all, so far as we can judge, inferior in many respects, to the one invented by Mr. Chilson, a model and plans of which we now exhibit, and recommend as superior to all others.

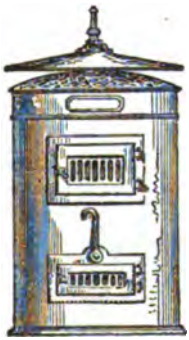
It is simple in its structure, easily managed, will consume the fuel perfectly, and with a *moderate* fire. It is fitted for wood or coal. The fire place is broad and shallow, and is lined with soapstone or fire-brick, which not only makes it perfectly safe and durable, but modifies very materially the usual effect of the fire upon the iron pot.

The principal radiating surfaces are wrought iron, of a suitable thickness for service, while at the same time the heat of the smallest fire is communicated immediately to the air chamber. The mode of setting this Furnace we consider essential; more especially the plan of admitting the air to the furnace at its lowest point, as it then rises naturally into the apartments above. This

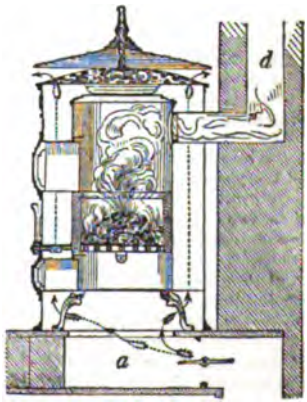
process commences as soon as the temperature is raised even a single degree. The outer walls remain cold; the floor above is not endangered, and the whole building is rapidly filled with an atmosphere which is at once salubrious and delightful.



Section of Chilson's Furnace.



Elevation.



Section.

VENTILATING STOVE.

For the houses which we found without the Hot Air Furnaces, as also for the Recitation and other single rooms, the invention of a Stove which shoul

answer the same purpose became essential. One was therefore contrived; and having been found in its earlier and ruder forms to be of great utility, it has since been improved in its appearance, as well as in the convenience of its management.

These Stoves are composed of two cylinders, the *inner* containing a fire chamber, which is lined with soap-stone or fire brick, while the *outer* constitutes a chamber for warming the air, which is introduced into it beneath the inner cylinder, from an air box directly connected with the external atmosphere.

They possess the following advantages:—

1. They are in fact *furnaces*, having distinct and capacious air chambers.
2. They insure, when properly set, that *supply of fresh air* which is *indispensable to the proper ventilation* of any apartment.
3. The Regulating Distributor, which is movable or fixed, as may be desired, determines with great accuracy the amount and temperature of the admitted air.
4. The outer cylinder is never hot enough to burn the person or clothing, or to be uncomfortable to those who are situated in its immediate vicinity.
5. They are constructed with the utmost regard to efficiency, durability, compactness, and neatness of appearance.

These Stoves have been furnished to the Schools whenever your Committee have required their use, and at manufacturers' prices, without any profit whatever to the inventor and patentee.

They may be used with advantage in the largest rooms, when the cellars are unfit for Furnaces, or when it is preferred to have the fire in the room itself. The Johnson, Wells, Hawes, and Winthrop School-houses are warmed entirely by them.

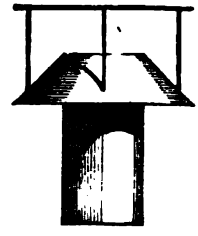
The discharging ventiducts have been made in various ways; some of wood, some of metal, and others of 'lath and plaster.' Some have opened at the ceiling only, and in but one part of the room, while others have been equally divided at opposite sides of the apartment. Our rule is this:—If the Heating Apparatus is at one end of an oblong room, the ventiduct is placed at the opposite. If the stove or furnace flue is at the middle of the longest side, the ventiducts are placed at each end, and are of course reduced to one half the size of the single one.

The *best* manner of constructing them is shown by the drawing, *Fig.* 1, and described on the following page.

There is great economy in carrying the boxes to the floor in all cases. In this way the room can be kept warm and the air pure in the coldest and most windy days.

The registers at the top and bottom can be used separately or together, as may be desired.

It is necessary and advantageous to apply some kind of cap or other covering upon the ventiducts where they terminate above the roof. It is necessary as a protection from the rain and the down blasts of wind, and it is also very advantageous to be enabled in this way to avail ourselves of the power of the wind to create an active upward current. We used at first the turncap or cowl invented by Mr. Espy, and with satisfactory results. It is undoubtedly the best movable top known; but is noisy, and somewhat liable to get out of working order. These objections to the movable tops have long been known, and various stationary tops have been invented, and have been partially successful. An improved Stationary Top, or Ejecting Ventilator, as it is called, has been invented during the past year by Mr. Emerson. It is shown in the drawing, and consists of the frustrum of a cone attached to the top of a tube, open in its whole extent, and surmounted by a fender which is supported upon rods, and answers the double purpose of keeping out the rain and of so directing or turning a blast of wind upon the structure, as that in what-



Ejecting Ventilator.

ever direction it fal!., the effect, that of causing a strong upward draft, will be very uniform and constant.

Being satisfied that this Stationary Ejector possessed all the advantages of the best tops hitherto known, without the disadvantages of either of them, we bave adopted it for several of the houses last ventilated, and find it in all respects satisfactory. We therefore recommend it for general use.

The Injector may generally be dispensed with, but in situations unfavorable for introducing air, it may be sometimes found convenient, or even necessary. [Mr. Emerson recommends the use of the Injecto.. whenever a ventilating stove or furnace is used, so as to secure the admission of a quantity of pure air, warmed by the heating surfaces of the stove or furnace, equal to the quantity of air rendered impure by respiration withdrawn by the Ejector. He refuses to allow his ventilators to be placed upon any school-house which is not supplied with fresh warm air.]



Injecting Ventilators.

Ventiducts.

The discharging ventiducts should be situated at the part of the rooms most distant from the stove or register of the furnace, and should always, if possible, be constructed in or upon an *interior* wall or partition, and an outer brick wall must, if possible, be avoided. They should be made of thoroughly seasoned sound pine boards, smoothed on the inner sides, and put together with two-inch iron screws. The outside finish may be of lath and plaster, or they may be projected backwards into a closet or entry, as shown in Figure 3. They must be carried entirely to the floor, and should be fitted at the top and bottom with a swivel blind, whose capacity is equal to that of the ventiduct into which it opens. This blind may be governed by stay rods or pulleys. The elevation gives a view of the ventiducts for a building of three stories, and shows the best mode of packing them, so as to avoid injuring the appearance of the rooms.

These ventiducts must be *kept entirely separate* to the main discharger at the roof, as any other arrangement would impair or destroy their utility.

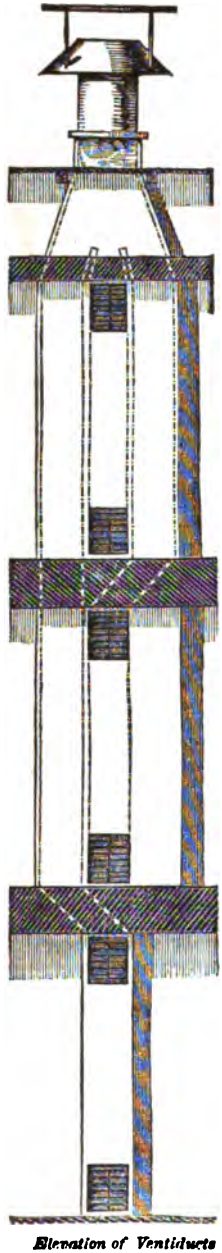
The size of the ventilators and ventiducts must correspond to the capacity of the room. and the number it is intended to accommodate.

A room containing sixty scholars is found to require a discharging duct of fourteen inches in diameter. A room for one hundred scholars requires the tube to be eighteen inches; and a room for two hundred scholars requires it to be twenty-four inches.

The *fresh air ventiducts should exceed in capacity* those for carrying off the impure air by about *fifty per cent.*; so that there will then always be a surplus or plenum supply, and the little currents of cold which press in at the crevices of the doors and windows will be entirely prevented.

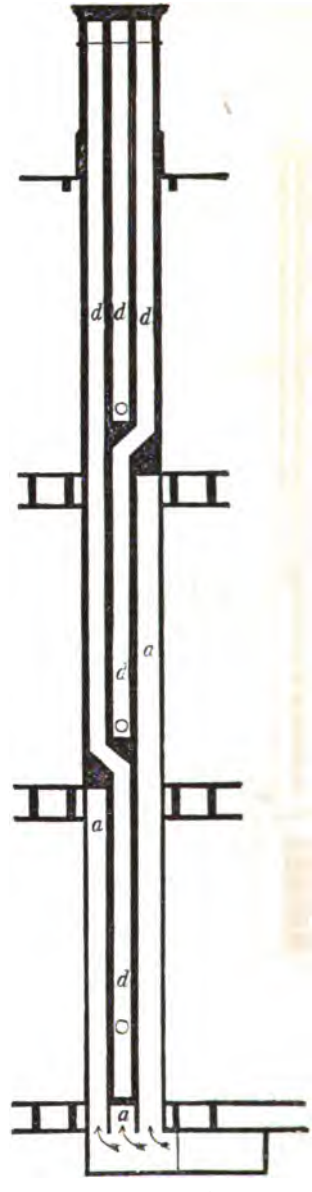
The section shown in Fig. 3 exhibits a very convenient mode of bringing the cold air to the ventilating stoves in a three story building in connection with the smoke flues.

FIGURE 1.



Elevation of Ventiducts

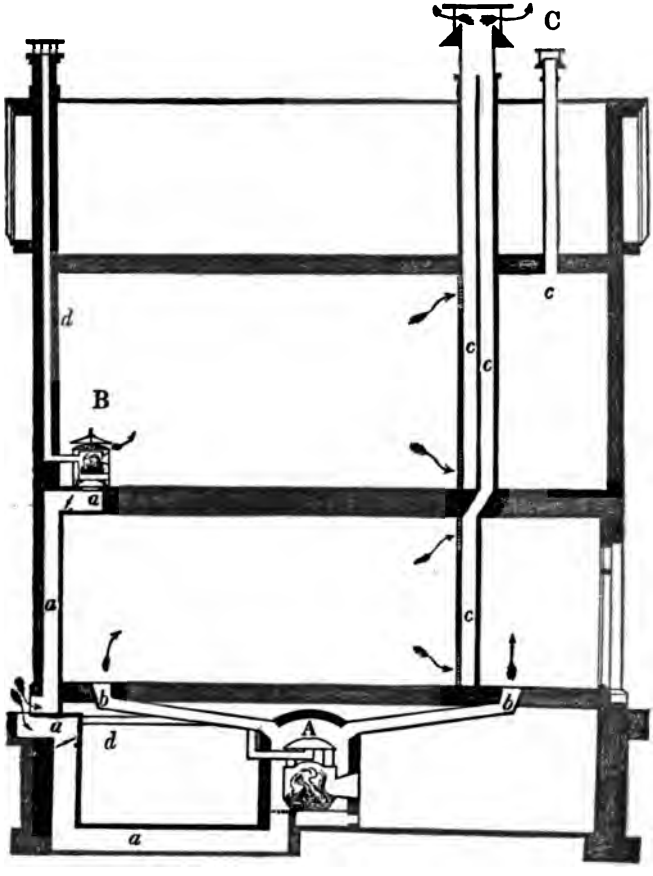
FIGURE 2.



a. Cold air ducts.
d. Smoke flues

The following section, (Fig. 3,) and plans (Fig's. 4 and 5,) exhibit at one view an example of a building of two stories warmed and ventilated by the apparatus and in the manner recommended.

FIGURE 3.

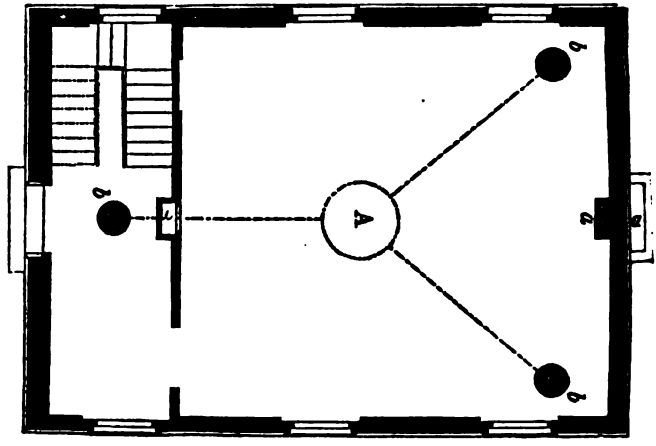


A. Chilson's Furnace.
B. The Boston School Stove.
C. Emerson's Ejector.
a. Cold or fresh air ducts.
b. Warmed air ducts.
c. Impure air ducts.
d. Smoke flues.

The letters on the plans correspond to those in the section.

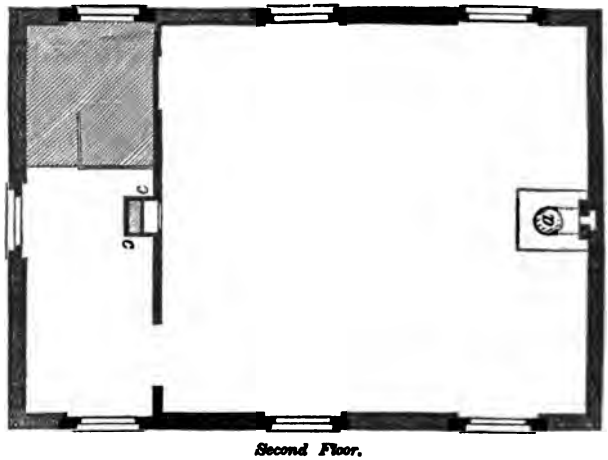
Plans of First and Second Floors.

FIGURE 4.



First Floor.

FIGURE 5.



Second Floor.

A. Furnace. a. a. a. Fresh air ducts. b. b. b. Warm air registers. c. c. c. Impure air ducts.

The modes of ventilation and heating above described and illustrated, were unanimously approved by the school committee, and recommended to the city government, for introduction into the school-houses which may be hereafter erected.

The Committee append to their Report directions for the management of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventiducts, to which they request the attention of the masters of the Public Schools, in conformity to the rule of the Board, which requires their attention to the Ventilation of the School-houses under their care.

Rules relative to the use of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventilators.

1. *To kindle the fire.*—Close the upper, and open the lower registers of the ventiducts; close the upper door of the stove or furnace and open the lower door; place the cover of the stove one or two inches up.
2. *After the room becomes warm*—Raise the cover of the stove three or five inches; close the lower door of the stove and open the upper door; open the registers of the ventiducts about half their width.
3. *If the room become too warm*—Open the registers full width, and raise the cover of the stove high up, keeping the upper door of the stove or furnace open, and the lower door closed.
4. *If the room become too cool*—Close the upper registers, (for a short time only;) close the upper door of the stove and open the lower door; drop the cover down within two inches of the sides.
5. Never close the top of the stove entirely down, while there is any fire therein.
6. At night, on leaving the room, let the cover of the stove down within one inch of the sides; close the lower door, and open the upper one; place all the registers open about half their width.
7. Fill the water basins every morning, and wash them twice a week.

The fires should be kept, if possible, through the night, by covering the coal. The coal to be white ash.

Construction of Ventiducts.

Since the first edition of this work was published, the following note has been received from Dr. Clark, in relation to the structure of the discharging ventiducts.

BOSTON, Feb. 12th, 1849.

HENRY BARNARD, ESQ.:

My Dear Sir,—Will you allow me to ask your attention to a single matter relating to ventilation? I refer to the construction, situation, and proper materials of the ventiducts which are intended to carry off the foul air. In almost all instances within my knowledge, excepting in the buildings in this place, which have been ventilated within two or three years past, these discharging ducts are made of *brick* or stone, being often, therefore, also built in the outer wall. If there is any peculiar advantage in our school house ventilation, its success is very much owing to the manner of locating and constructing these same ejecting ventiducts.

The brick ducts always operate *downwards*; that is to say, the air has a constant *tendency to fall* in them, and they will never "draw" in the proper or *upward* direction, with the best turncap or top known, unless there is a high wind, or unless *artificial* power, such as a *fire*, or a fan wheel be put in requisition. Now the contrary is the fact with the thin *wooden, or lath-and-plaster, interior ventiduct*. The current is always in the right or *upward* direction. They are warmed to the *temperature of the room*, and when provided with a proper top will operate *in all seasons*. Although the currents will *vary* in power and rapidity, yet, while almost all our ventiducts are provided, and should be, with means of heating by lamps or otherwise, I believe they have scarcely had occasion to light them. So that any impressions formed in relation to this part of the subject from the English, and particularly the French methods of ventilating school-houses, when the brick flues are always used, must be entirely erroneous. The days in which the fires in the French flues *would be forgotten* and omitted, or *be permitted to go out*, would far exceed the number of those in which our ventiducts would not act in the most perfect manner *without any power at all.*

I would not have troubled you, but that I know this point, from much practical experience, to be worthy of especial attention, and in case you should publish a new edition of your work on school-houses, I hope it may be considered.

I am, dear sir,

Yours very truly,

HENRY G. CLARK

course of divinity or philology. Two lessons a week for four years are usually given to it. The principal text-books used are Seffer's Elements, Gesenius' Grammar and Reader, Metzger's Exercises, and the books of Ewald. There are no exercises in composition beyond the usual "extemporals," and it is considered sufficient if the students at graduation are able to translate from a historical book with some readiness without special preparation.

In the instruction in French there is little uniformity in the different schools, owing chiefly to the connection here of the real classes with the gymnasium. The number of lessons a week varies for the classes of the gymnasium from eight to sixteen, and in the real school from seven to eleven. Commencing usually perhaps in the Quinta, four hours a week are given it in the preparatory and throughout the real course, while in the middle classes but three lessons and in the higher but two are customary. The text-books are too numerous to be mentioned. In the preparatory and succeeding stages, as much time at least is given to grammar and composition as to translation; in the middle grade and in the real classes, reading is the principal feature, though much time is still given to oral and written exercises, and great stress is laid upon fluency in writing. In the upper classes about the same time is given to each, but less attention is paid to speaking the language than in the higher real class, as it is not one of the requirements at the proficiency examination. The instruction in this branch is given sometimes by the class teachers, and sometimes by special teachers, who are also engaged in teaching other branches, as history, geography, religion, or Hebrew. Sometimes also teachers are employed for the lower and middle classes, and in the smaller schools, who have had their training at the Teachers' Seminaries.

The same may be said in regard to the instructors in English. This language is commenced, with more uniformity than the French, in the Secunda, and receives two hours weekly for four years. As an acquaintance with the literature is the principal object, reading occupies most of the time, the exercises in composition aiming rather at a knowledge of the grammar than fluency and skill of expression. The English language stands in much the same relation to the French in this respect, as the Greek does to the Latin. In the real classes, on the other hand, more attention is given to composition, both in English and French. The authors read are Scott, Irving, Marryat, Cooper, Dickens, Macauley, Shakespeare, Byron, and Sheridan. The text-books are numerous.

To the study of German, four hours a week are given in the real classes and in the two lower classes of the gymnasium; in the higher classes, three hours. The lower grade of instruction here consists in exercises in reading, committing poetry to memory, oral or, perhaps, written narrative, grammar, and spelling, which is taught according to the rules published by the Supreme Board of Instruction. Above the lower classes grammar forms no special branch of study, except in the Catholic

schools, where particular attention is paid to syntax. The Protestant schools are satisfied to teach the essentials by means of reading and composition, while for a deeper understanding of it the study of the middle high German is depended upon. For exercise in reading, many books have been prepared and selections from the writings of German authors, both in prose and poetry. In most institutions the middle high German is studied by the two higher classes, with the use of Schädel's and Kohlrausch's Elements, and the reading of the "Niebelungen Lied," the "Gudrun," and Volckmar's selections from the Minnesänger. Pains are taken to impart a general knowledge of the most important periods of German literature, and exercises are also held in declamation, the recitation of poems, orations, &c., selected and original. The written exercises that come under the name of compositions, in the lower classes, consist only of a reproduction of what has been learned in history or in the reading exercises, and even in the Quarta they do not pass essentially beyond narration, subjects for which are drawn from the same sources, or are found in special incidents and current events. In the Tertia, in addition to narration and description, written translations and paraphrases of passages from the classics are required, as well as practice in the epistolary style, the illustration of proverbs by historical examples, and even the discussion of the causes and effects of historical events. Dissertations of the latter character are frequent in the two higher classes, with historical composition, discussions upon the authenticity of particular facts, and the rhetorical criticisms of classical orations. Abstract argumentative composition is but little practiced. In connection with these exercises due attention is given to instruction in rhetoric—in invention and order, by means of examples, and in elocution, by the corrections in the compositions. The reading of the poets affords opportunity for metrical practice.

In Grecian history, the field is limited, by the requirements for the proficiency examination, to the period from 500 B. C. to 323 B. C.; the study of Roman history ends with Augustus, and the German commences with Charlemagne, but within these limits a thorough knowledge is demanded. The usual number of lessons is two a week in each class, rarely three. In all institutions there is a uniform division of the course into three sections for the lower, middle, and higher classes—sometimes styled the biographical, ethnographical, and general history courses—the first consisting of descriptions of the most remarkable events that occurred within these periods, the second giving a more connected knowledge of the history of the different nations and including the study of chronology, and the third perfecting the knowledge already attained and giving a clear, comprehensive, general view of the whole. In the higher real class, ancient history is made less prominent than in the gymnasial course, and more attention is paid to German and modern history in general. The text-books used are those of Marckgraff, Welter, Stüve, Dietsch, Kohlrausch, Schuster, Pütz, Dittmar, and Beck, but these are only employed as guides and the principal reliance is placed upon lec-

tures, which the students are required to follow and master by careful study.

Geography is pursued as a distinct study in the lower and middle classes, receiving usually two hours a week. In the higher classes the study is blended with that of history, for which an additional lesson is very often given. The usual text-books are David, Oppermann, Hartmann, Volger, Stahlberg, Meurer, Metzger, and Rougemont, besides various atlases. Globes and wall-maps are in general use, and sometimes other apparatus. The "modern" method of instruction is principally followed, commencing by giving a thorough idea of the form of the earth and the position of its principal divisions, then taking up Europe, at first in outline, and tracing out its mountain ranges and river courses, and then its separate countries in a similar manner. In a few schools the opposite or synthetic method is pursued. Map-drawing is everywhere much practiced.

In natural history, two lessons a week are given in the Sexta to imparting information and exciting an interest in regard to the animal and vegetable kingdoms, by means of descriptions, pictures, and specimens. In the Quinta and Quarta, the same amount of time is devoted to botany in summer and to zoölogy in winter. In the higher real class the same branches are studied more in detail and the study of mineralogy is usually added. As text-books, Lueben, Milter, Leunis, and Prestel are in common use.

The course of arithmetic is usually confined to the three lower classes, with four lessons a week, and for the most part follows the excellent text-books of Krancke. In the real classes the study is continued farther than in the gymnasium and more attention is paid to its practical applications in business and common life.

Mathematics, aside from arithmetic, commences usually in the Quarta and is continued through the course with three or four lessons weekly. The course includes the solution of quadratic equations with one or more unknown quantities, arithmetical and geometrical series, the theory and use of logarithms, the relations of rectilinear figures and the properties of the circle, plane trigonometry, and the measurement of surfaces and solids. The instruction is conducted by some teachers without the employment of any text-books whatever; others make use of the works of Ludowieg, Haage, Prestel, Schoof, Hartmann, Wittstein, Koppe, Lückenhoff, or Tellkampf.

Natural Philosophy is pursued in the Prima and higher real class, with some preparatory study in the Secunda. Two lessons a week are given it, and it includes the properties of bodies, the laws of equilibrium and motion, and the subjects of heat, electricity, and magnetism. All the schools are supplied with a sufficient apparatus for illustration. The books of Müller, Koppe, Fischer, Trappe, and Fliedner are used.

There is no special course of mental or moral philosophy, but the main points are considered in connection with other branches. Logic is in-

troduced in the study of German; the history of philosophy, and its elements, while reading Plato and Cicero; doctrinal theology and ethics, in religious instruction, &c.

Singing is a branch universally taught, and strongly insisted upon by the Board of Instruction. The number of lessons varies from six to eight. The students are usually divided into two classes, the first for elementary exercises, and chorals and songs in one part, and consisting of the two or three lower classes. The second division includes the higher classes and such as are prepared to join them from the lower, and in this the practice is more extended. Instruction in instrumental music is given to such as desire it.

Drawing is also taught in all schools and is obligatory upon members of the lower and real classes. In the higher classes it is optional, and the special branch of the art pursued is there left to the choice of the pupil. Instruction in penmanship is given in the three or four lower classes and in the lower real classes, though the time devoted to it varies much in different schools. The method pursued is the so-called "American," with numerous modifications.

Gymnastic exercises are now everywhere introduced. Since 1848, grants have been made from the State Treasury to every school, for providing suitable grounds and apparatus, and two teachers are employed by Government to visit the schools, give instruction, and maintain the efficiency of the department. Some one of the teachers has the special direction and superintendence of the exercises. The whole body of students is usually divided into two sections, which exercise an hour or two twice a week. Attendance is optional, though an annual payment of about one thaler is required from each student.

	Gymnasium and Real Classes.*								Pro-gymnasium.				
Classes.	I.	II.		III.		IV.		V.	VI.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Religion,	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	3	3	2	3	3	4	4
German,	3	3	(4)	3	(4)	3	(4)	3	4	3	3	4	6	6
Latin,	9	9	(4)	9	(4)	9	(4)	9	9	8	5	6	6	
Greek,	6	6		6		6				[4]				
French,	2	2	(4)	3	(4)	2	(4)	3		4	3	4		
English,	2	2	(4)		(4)		(2)			3	3			
Hebrew,	[2]	[2]												
History,	3	3	(2)	3	(2)	2	(2)	2		2	2	2		
Geography,			(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	4		2	2	2	2	2
Natural History,			(2)		(2)		(2)	2	2	2	2	1		
Nat. Philosophy,	2													
Math., and Arithmetic,	3	3	(6)	4	(6)	4	(6)	4	4	6	6	4	4	5
Penmanship,						2	(2)	2	4		2	2	4	5
Drawing,	[2]	[2]	(2)	[2]	(2)	[2]	(2)	2	2	2	2	2	1	
Singing,	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	2	1	2	2	1	
Gymnastics,	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	(2)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	36	36	(36)	36	(36)	36	(36)	36	36	41	37	34	30	28

* The number of lessons in the real classes are placed parenthetically in the same columns with those of the parallel classes (II., III., IV.) of the gymnasium. There is no separation of the stu-

the middle than in the higher classes, and also that where the board of teachers act in harmony and oppose themselves conscientiously and consistently against wrong-doing, the preservation of discipline and good morals is not very difficult.

3. *Vacations and Public Examinations.*

The school-year commences at Easter. The vacations amount to nine or ten weeks, distributed unequally at Easter, Ascension Day, Michaelmas, and Christmas. No instruction is given on the afternoons of Wednesday and Saturday, and other afternoons are occasionally free. School festivals occur at Easter and Michaelmas, with orations from graduating members and musical exercises by the class choirs. Printed programmes of the Easter exercises are usual, and a system of exchanges is maintained with the institutions of the other German States.

Besides the proficiency examination, other public examinations are held at Easter, and occasionally at Michaelmas. There are also the so-called class examinations, to which the public are not admitted, and which are so arranged that the teachers may become better acquainted with each other's methods and be benefited by an interchange of views and experiences.

V. RELATIONS OF THE TEACHERS.

1. *Grades and Titles.*

The teachers are either permanently located, or are only engaged for instruction in certain branches, as in drawing, singing, or sometimes in writing, and otherwise not connected with the school. The settled teachers are on an equality in so far as they have the right of voting in the conferences and a claim to certain privileges from the State. Their position, however, differs according as they are class or department teachers, and also according to the classes to which they are attached. Of the total 240 teachers, 191 have passed through a university course; viz., 96 in the languages, 55 in theology, (23 of whom are Catholic,) 23 in mathematics, 8 in mathematics and the languages, and 9 in the modern languages. The head officer of the gymnasium is entitled "Director," the highest class teacher is "Rector," the two or three next below him are "Conrectores;" then follow the "Subconrector" and the "Collaboratores." There is also the title "Oberlehrer," especially for department teachers. In the pro-gymnasium, the teachers are styled "Rector," "Conrector," and "Collaboratores." All classes of society are represented, excepting the nobility, the higher grade of State officials, and the army.

2. *Examinations and Settlement.*

Candidates for any position are required to pass an examination before the Scientific Examining Committee. The requirements of this "examen pro facultate docendi" are modified according as the candidate may desire to become a class teacher, a department teacher of mathematics and the natural sciences, or of the modern languages, or an assistant in the

separate branches of the lower classes. According to the result a certificate is granted of his fitness to teach in any of the classes, or in the middle and lower, or in the lower only. For the advancement of the latter to the charge of the higher classes, another examination is requisite, unless the capacity of the individual has become so evident that in the view of the Board of Instruction it is unnecessary. The recent regulations of 1858 have so far defined the requisites of this examination and limited its field that the danger now is that the student, instead of directing his attention, as before, to the whole field of knowledge and striving to make himself its master, will keep in view only the requirements of the examination and trim and fashion his studies so as merely to answer to the demand. A similar objection exists to the new provision permitting the candidate to select the branches in which to be examined, for certainly none should be placed as teachers in such institutions who have not gone through a thorough general course of university study.

After a final trial exercise before the Board of Instruction, the candidate either enters an institution for a year's practice and trial, or is admitted member of the second section of the Normal Seminary. As soon as his efficiency is proved, he is enrolled as entitled to employment, and an engagement soon follows. The age for settlement is not fixed, and is less than formerly. Many are now permanently located at the age of twenty-three. At the ten State institutions the appointment depends wholly upon the Board of Instruction, and also at the others in conjunction with the patrons or episcopal authorities, who willingly assent to the choice of the Board. The directors have no voice legally in the appointment, but from their position, their views and wishes are consulted and regarded.

The amount of instruction required of each teacher is not fixed by law. It varies at different schools, but in general the teachers in the preparatory department give thirty to thirty-two lessons in a week; in the lower classes, from twenty-four to twenty-seven, and in the middle and upper classes, from twenty to twenty-four. The directors rarely teach more than twelve to sixteen hours in a week.

3. *State Relations. Salaries. Pensions.*

As employed in the service of the State, teachers are in the same position as other State officials. They are subject to the same regulations respecting suspension or dismissal from office, and in case of unfitness, indolence, or incompetency that will not yield to warning and censure, provision is made for an examination "pro loco," as a result of which the teacher may be assigned to a lower position, be compelled to accept an assistant, or be dismissed, with or without pension. The examination may be avoided by voluntary assent to such of these changes as the Board may elect. There have been, however, but four cases of dismission since the establishment of the Board.

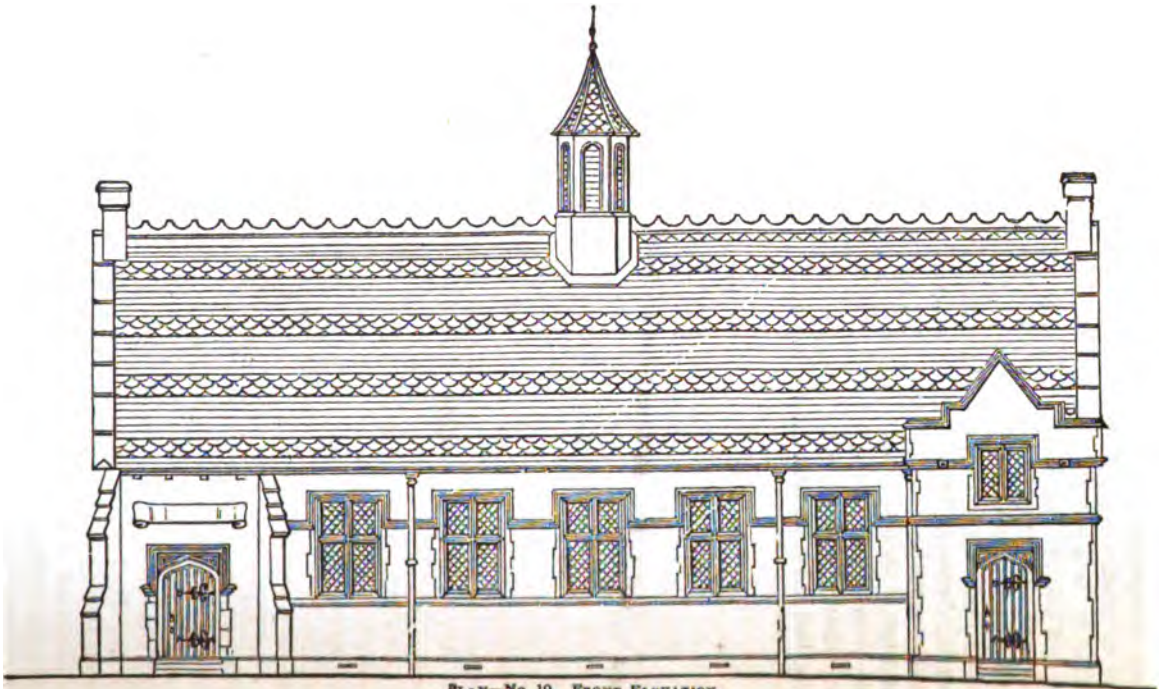
The minimum salary, which until recently was only 300 thalers, has recently been raised in many cases to 400. While the average salary in

1888 for university trained teachers was 575 thalers, it is now 731, and for others, somewhat over 441 thalers; which includes the value of house rent and the payments in kind which are made to many teachers. There is no immunity from taxation. A comparison of these salaries with those of other officials shows that they are still relatively less than they should be, though the earlier age at which the teacher obtains his office diminishes the inequality in some degree. The right to a pension commences after ten years of service. The amount is then thirty per cent. of the teacher's salary, and increases one per cent. for each year of subsequent service, and after the thirtieth year, two per cent., until the maximum of eighty per cent. is reached. Three per cent. of the salary of married teachers is paid into the Fund for the Support of Widows of Officers of the Court and Civil Service, from which their widows are entitled to a pension equal to one-third of the salary.

4. *General Remarks.*

It is an acknowledged fact that the result of the organization of 1830 has been to give these schools new life and activity, to make them equal to the demands of the times, and to raise them to a level with the similar schools of Prussia and other neighboring States. This is generally due to the wise action of the Board of Instruction, who, without recourse to experiment or theory, simply accepted the institutions as they were and afforded them room and inducement for a healthy and natural development. By labor and prudence, by kind and conciliatory language and encouragement, difficulties and jealousies were removed, interest was excited, and the teachers were gained over and gradually brought to an earnest devotion and satisfaction in the labors of their profession and a patient endurance of poverty. This latter evil has also been greatly relieved. The sum spent upon the schools has more than doubled since 1830, which would have given a very satisfactory increase of salary had not the number of teachers also increased in the same time nearly fifty per cent. A farther improvement in this respect is probable, and it is also to be hoped that a system of graded salaries will be established, by which the record shall be proportioned to the labor and the length of service, as has long been the case with other State officials. Various other changes remain still to be desired. The smaller institutions and the pro-gymnasiums in many cases need increased means and a larger force of teachers to enable them to effect all that they ought to do. It ought to be made possible to transfer teachers from one location to another, as the interests of the schools or the wants of the teachers may require. Teachers need to be encouraged and assisted to advance in their studies, which it is now frequently impossible to do without great strength of will and self-denial, and every means employed to prevent at least any retrogression in this respect. It would seem that in the last ten years the teacher's task has become more tedious; the scholars with the same will and degree of zeal have less power of mind and find it more difficult to conquer their studies and attain to that maturity of judgment nec-

essary for success in academical study, and thus more labor is thrown upon the teacher and a greater demand made upon his own scientific knowledge and experience. In regard to the proficiency examination, the Latin composition should especially be restored, and also the examination in history and mathematics be made easier. One danger yet remains to be guarded against, the want of thoroughly efficient, well-trained teachers, and this leads inevitably to the difficult question of salary. The times have changed and calculation has driven out inspiration. Very few, even of the better and more aspiring youth, now enter upon literary and scientific studies, wholly absorbed by an ideal interest, as was once the case. The technical and other departments of the public service require less time and preparation, and for at least not more difficult labors, place before their eyes prospects of greater regard than the department of instruction. The teacher's office should be placed at least on a level with others, and noble and elevating as it is, should be so recognized and so honored. *Honos alit artes!*



PLAN—No. 10. FRONT ELEVATION.



X. VENTILATION

EVERY apartment of a school-house should be provided with a cheap, simple, and efficient mode of ventilation, by which the air, which is constantly becoming vitiated by respiration, combustion, or other causes, may be constantly flowing out of the room, and its place filled by an adequate supply of fresh air drawn from a pure source, and admitted into the room at the right temperature, of the requisite degree of moisture, and without any perceptible current. These objects may be attained by attention to the following particulars:

1. The location of the school-house must be healthy, and all causes—such as defective drains, stagnant water, decaying animal or vegetable substances, and manufactures, whose operations evolve offensive and deleterious gases—calculated to vitiate the external atmosphere, from which the air of the school-room is supplied, must be removed or obviated.

2. The means provided for ventilation must be sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows, and other lateral openings, which are intended primarily for the admission of light, passage to and from the apartment, and similar purposes. Any dependence on the opening of doors and windows, except in summer, will subject the occupants of the room near such points to currents of cold air when the pores of the skin are open, and when such extreme and rapid changes of temperature are particularly disagreeable and dangerous.

3. Any openings in the ceiling for the discharge of vitiated air into the attic, and hence to the exterior of the building, or by flues carried up in the wall, no matter how constructed or where placed, can not be depended on for purposes of ventilation, unless systematic arrangements are adopted to effect, in concert with such openings, the introduction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air, in the right condition as to temperature and moisture.

4. All stoves, or other heating apparatus, standing in the apartment to be warmed, and heating only the atmosphere of that apartment, which is constantly becoming more and more vitiated by respiration and other causes, are radically defective, and should be altogether, without delay, and forever discarded.

5. Any apparatus for warming pure air, before it is introduced into the school-room, in which the heating surface becomes *red-hot*, or the air is warmed above the temperature of boiling water, is inconsistent with good ventilation.

6. To effect the combined objects of warming and ventilation, a large quantity of moderately heated air should be introduced in such a manner as to reach every portion of the room, and be passed off by appro-

priate openings and flues, as fast as its oxygen is exhausted, and it becomes vitiated by carbonic acid gas, and other noxious qualities.

7. The size and number of the admission flues or openings will depend on the size of the school-room, and the number of persons occupying the same; but they should have a capacity to supply every person in the room with at least five cubic feet of air per minute. Warm air can be introduced at a high as well as a low point from the floor, provided there is an exhaustive power in the discharging flues sufficient to secure a powerful ascending current of vitiated air from openings near the floor.

8. Openings into flues for the discharge of vitiated air, should be made at such points in the room, and at such distances from the openings for the admission of pure warm air, that a portion of the warm air will traverse every part of the room, and impart as much warmth as possible, before it becomes vitiated and escapes from the apartment.

These openings can be made near the floor, at points most distant from the admission flues, provided there is a fire-draught, or other power operating in the discharging flues, sufficient to overcome the natural tendency of the warm air in the room to ascend to the ceiling; otherwise they should be inserted in or near the ceiling.

Openings at the floor are recommended, not because carbonic acid gas, being heavier than the other elements of atmospheric air, settles to the floor, (because, owing to the law of the diffusion of gases among each other, carbonic acid gas will be found equally diffused through the room,) but because, when it can be drawn off at the floor, it will carry along with it the cold air which is admitted by open doors, and at cracks and crevices, and also the offensive gases sometimes found in school-rooms.

9. All openings, both for the admission and discharge of air, should be fitted with valves and registers, to regulate the quantity of air to pass through them. The quantity of air to be admitted should be regulated before it passes over the heating surface; otherwise, being confined in the air chamber and tubes, the excessive heat will cause much injury to the pipes and the woodwork adjoining.

10. All flues for ventilation, not intended to act in concert with some motive power, such as a fan, a pump, the mechanism of a clock, a fire-draught, a jet of steam, &c., but depending solely on the spontaneous upward movement of the column of warm air within them, should be made large, (of a capacity equal to at least 18 inches in diameter,) tight, (except the openings at the top and bottom of the room,) smooth, (if made of boards, the boards should be seasoned, matched, and planed; if made of bricks, the flue should be round, and finished smooth,) and carried up on the inside of the room, or in the inner wall, with as few angles and deviations from a direct ascent as possible, above the highest point of the roof.

11. All flues for the discharge of vitiated air, even when properly constructed and placed, and even when acting in concert with a current

of warm air flowing into the room, should be supplied with some simple reliable exhaustive power, which can be applied at all seasons of the year, and with a force varying with the demands of the season, and the condition of the air in the apartment.

12. The most simple, economical, and reliable motive power available in most school-houses is heat, or the same process by which the natural upward movements of air are induced and sustained. Heat can be applied to the column of air in a ventilating flue—

1. By carrying up the ventilating flue close beside, or even within the smoke flue, which is used in connection with the heating apparatus.

2. By carrying up the smoke-pipe within the ventilating flue, either the whole length, or in the upper portion only. In a small school-room, the heat from the smoke-pipe carried up for a few feet only in the ventilating flue before it projects above the roof, is a motive power sufficient to sustain a constant draught of cool and vitiated air, into a opening near the floor.

3. By kindling a fire at the bottom, or other convenient point in the ventilating flue—

If the same flue is used for smoke from the fire, and vitiated air from the apartment, some simple self-acting valve or damper should be applied to the opening for the escape of the vitiated air, which shall close at the slightest pressure from the inside of the flue, and thus prevent any reverse current, or down draught, carrying smoke and soot into the apartment.

4. By discharging a jet of steam, or a portion of warm air from the furnace, or other warming apparatus, directly into the ventilating flue.

Any application of heat by which the temperature of the air in the ventilating flue can be raised above the temperature of the apartment to be ventilated, will cause a flow of air from the apartment to sustain the combustion, (if there is a fire in the flue,) and to supply the partial vacuum in the flue, which is caused by the rarefaction of the air in the same.

In all school buildings, when several apartments are to be ventilated, the most effectual, and, all things considered, the most economical mode of securing a motive power, is to construct an upright brick shaft or flue, and in that to build a fire, or carry up the smoke-pipe of the stove, furnace, or other warming apparatus; and then to discharge the ventilating flues from the top or bottom of each apartment, into this upright shaft. The fire-draught will create a partial vacuum in this shaft, to fill which, a draught will be established upon every room with which it is connected by lateral flues. Whenever a shaft of this kind is resorted to, the flues for ventilation may be lateral, and the openings into them may be inserted near the floor.

13. With a flue properly constructed, so as to facilitate the spontaneous upward movement of the warm air within it, and so placed that the air is not exposed to the chilling influence of external cold, a turncap, constructed after the plan of Emerson's Ejector, or Mott's Exhausting

Cowl, will assist the ventilation, and especially when there are any currents in the atmosphere. But such caps are not sufficient to overcome any considerable defects in the construction of the ventilating flues, even when there is much wind.

14. The warming and ventilation of a school-room will be facilitated by applying a double sash to all windows having a northern and eastern exposure, or on the sides of the prevailing winds in winter.

15. In every furnace and on every stove, a capacious vessel, well supplied with fresh water and protected from the dust, should be placed.

16. Every school-room should be furnished with two thermometers, placed on opposite sides in the room, and the temperature in the winter should not be allowed to attain beyond 68° Fahrenheit at a level of four feet from the floor, or 70° at the height of six feet.

17. The necessity for ventilation in an occupied apartment is not obviated by merely reducing the atmosphere to a low temperature.

18. No apparatus, however skillfully constructed or judiciously located, can dispense with the careful oversight of a thoughtful teacher.

Although much has been said and printed on the principles and modes of ventilation, there is much to be done by educators, committees, and teachers, to enlighten and liberalize the public mind and action on this important subject—not only in reference to school-rooms, but to halls of justice and legislation, to churches, lecture rooms, and workshops,—to all places where human beings congregate in large numbers, for business or pleasure.

Mr. D. Leach, one of the agents employed by the Board of Education in Massachusetts, to visit schools and confer with committees in regard to the construction of school-houses, remarks in 1853:

In a large majority of school-houses, there are no means of ventilating but by opening the windows and doors. And where attempts have been made, it has been but imperfectly accomplished. The ventilating tubes have almost invariably been too small. As the result of my investigations, I would make the following suggestions. To ventilate a room properly containing fifty persons, the ventilating tube should not be less than fifteen square inches inside. The tube should be made of very thin boards, well seasoned, with a smooth inside surface, and it should be perfectly tight. It should be wholly within the room, and opposite to the register or stove. There should be an opening at the top and bottom. The ventilating tubes should be connected in the attic, and conducted through the roof, and furnished with a suitable cap. Another method, which is far preferable, is as follows: The smoke pipes may be conducted into a cast iron pipe resting on soap-stone in the attic floor, instead of a chimney built from the bottom of the cellar. This cast iron pipe may be surrounded by a brick chimney, into which the ventilating tubes should lead. The space in the chimney should be equal to the spaces in the tubes, after making suitable allowance for the pipe; and the increase of friction. By this arrangement, the air in the tubes will be rarefied, and a rapid current of air produced. All attempts to ventilate rooms with tubes in the wall, or of less size than fourteen or fifteen square inches for fifty persons, have, so far as I have examined, failed. No artificial means will secure good ventilation when the temperature of the room and that of the outer air are nearly the same, without the application of heat to the air in the tubes. Unless the air is heated before being admitted into the room, it should be let in at the top, and not at the bottom, and always through a large number of small apertures. The quantity of pure air admitted must always be equal to that which is to be forced out.

Methods of Ventilation and Warming, recently introduced into the School-Houses of Boston.

In February, 1846, the School Committee of Boston appointed Dr. Henry G. Clark, E. G. Loring, Esq., and Rev. Charles Brooks, a Committee "to consider the subject of ventilation of the school-houses under the care of this Board, and to report at a future meeting some method of remedying the very defective manner in which it is now accomplished." The Committee were further "authorized to ventilate any three school-houses, in such manner as they may deem expedient." Under these instructions, the Committee visited, and carefully examined all the school-houses under the care of the Board, and instituted a variety of experiments, for the purpose of determining on the best method of ventilation, to be generally introduced. In December, 1846, this Committee made a Report, for a copy of which we are indebted to the author, Dr. Clark, by whose agency and ingenuity mainly, these great improvements, both in ventilation and warming, hereafter detailed, have been introduced into the Public Schools of Boston. We are also indebted to Dr. Clark for the use of the cuts by which this Report, and a subsequent Report, are illustrated. We shall extract largely from these valuable documents, with the permission of the author. It will be seen that the views here recommended are substantially the same with those presented under the head of Ventilation, in this Treatise.

"Your Committee desire to call the attention of this Board, chiefly to the consideration of such general and well established Physiological and Philosophical principles, as have a distinct and intimate relation to the subject of this Report, and may be useful in its elucidation.

In doing this, there are two things of which they hope to satisfy the Board.

First. The necessity of a system of ventilation, which shall furnish, for all the pupils in the Public Schools of Boston, at all times, an abundant supply of an atmosphere entirely adapted, in its purity and temperature, to the purposes of respiration.

Secondly. The entire failure of the measures heretofore adopted to accomplish this desirable end.

The function of Respiration, is that process, by whose agency and constant operation, atmospheric air is admitted to the internal surface of the lungs, and there brought into close contact with the blood, for the purpose of effecting certain changes in it, which are essential to the continuance of life, and to maintain the integrity of the bodily organs. During this process, the atmosphere is constantly losing its oxygen, which is carried into the circulation, while, at the same time, it is becoming overcharged with the carbonic acid gas, which is continually thrown off from the lungs by respiration. This effete and deadly poison spreads itself rapidly into all parts of the room.

'M. Lassaigne has shown, by a series of investigations, that, contrary to a common opinion, the air in a room which has served for respiration without being renewed, contains carbonic acid alike in every part, above as well as below; the difference in proportion is but slight; and, where appreciable, there is some reason to believe that the carbonic acid is in greater quantity in the upper parts of a room. These experiments establish the very important fact, that all the air of a room must be changed, in order to restore its purity.'*

Dr. Wyman makes the following remarks on this point: 'Although carbonic acid is a much heavier gas than atmospheric air, it does not, from this cause, fall to the floor, but is equally diffused through the room. If the gas is formed on the floor without change of temperature, this diffusion may not take place

*Silliman's Journal for September, 1846.

rapidly. In the celebrated *Grotto del Cane*, carbonic acid escapes from the floor, and rises to a certain height, which is pretty well defined to the sight on the walls; below this line, a dog is destroyed, as if in water; above it, he is not affected. An analysis of the air above and below a brazier has been made, and it was found equally contaminated,—the former containing 4 65 per cent., and the latter 4.5 per cent. of carbonic acid.

'From the experiments of M. Devergie, who has devoted much attention to the poisonous effects of these gasses, it appears, that the heat disengaged from the combustion of charcoal, produces an equable mixture at all elevations in the apartment; and this state of things continues *as long as the room remains warm;* but after twelve hours or more, the carbonic acid sinks, and while that near the ceiling contains only a seventy-eighth, that near the floor contains nearly four times as much, or a nineteenth.' (*See Prac. Tres.* p. 77.)

If further proof be needed, to establish this position, we have other testimony. During respiration, a considerable quantity of vapor is discharged from the lungs. With regard to this, Mr. Tredgold says: 'if the air did not contain this mixture of vapor, it would not rise when expelled; and we have to admire one of those simple and beautiful arrangements, by which our all-wise Creator has provided against the repeated inhalation of the same air; for a mixture of azote, carbonic acid gas, and vapor, at the temperature it is ejected, is much lighter than common air even at the same temperature. Hence, it rises with such velocity, that it is entirely removed from us before it becomes diffused in the atmosphere. But as all gaseous bodies and vapors intimately mix when suffered to remain in contact, we see how important it is that ventilation should be continual; that the noxious gasses should be expelled as soon as generated; and that the ventilation should be from the upper part of a room.' (*See Tredgold on Warming, &c.*, p. 70.

If, to the foul effluvia ejected from the lungs, and accumulating in an apartment as badly ventilated as one of our school-rooms, be added the fouler matter thrown into the air from the insensible perspiration of so many individuals, many of whom are of uncleanly habits in person and apparel, it is apparent, that, in a very limited period of time, the air, in a perfectly close room, would become so entirely unfit for respiration, that, to all who were exposed to its influence, submersion in water could not be more certainly fatal.

The terrible effects of continued exposure to carbonic acid gas in a concentrated form, have been graphically described by Howard, in his account of the Black Hole of Calcutta. Of one hundred and forty-six persons, shut up in this place for only ten hours, without any other means of ventilation than one small opening, but twenty-six were found alive, when it came to be opened; and most of these suffered afterward from malignant fevers.

The fainting of feeble persons in crowded assemblies, and the asphyxia, so often produced in those who descend into deep wells without suitable precaution, are familiar examples of the same noxious effects of this poison.

In has been usually estimated, that every individual, by respiration, and the various exhalations from the body, consumes or renders unfit for use, at least from four to five cubic feet of air per minute. This is probably a low estimate; but authors of good repute differ considerably on this point. Mr. Tredgold's remarks, in this connection, are interesting and pertinent. 'The Physiological Chemists,' says he, 'have placed in our hands a more accurate means of measuring the deterioration of air in dwelling rooms, than by the best eudiometer; for they have shown, by repeated experiments on respiration, that a man consumes about thirty-two cubic inches of oxygen in a minute, which is replaced by an equal bulk of carbonic acid from the lungs. Now, the quantity of oxygen in atmospheric air is about one fifth; hence it will be found, that the quantity rendered unfit for supporting either combustion or animal life, by one man, in one minute, is nearly one hundred and sixty cubic inches, by respiration only. But a man makes twenty respirations in a minute, and draws in and expels forty inches of air at each respiration; consequently, the total quantity contaminated in one minute, by passing through the lungs, is eight hundred cubic inches.'* The other sources of impurity, which should be considered, will increase the estimate to the amount above stated. The amount of vapor discharged from the lungs, and thus added to the impurities of the air, is said to exceed six grains per minute. It has also been shown

*Tredgold on Warming, &c., p. 69

that air, which has been some time in contact with the skin, becomes almost entirely converted into carbonic acid.'

In estimating the amount of fresh air to be supplied, we ought not merely to look at what the system will tolerate, but that amount which will sustain the highest state of health for the longest time. Dr. Reid recommends at least ten cubic feet per minute, as a suitable average supply for each individual; and states that his estimate is the result of an 'extreme variety of experiments, made on hundreds of different constitutions, supplied one by one with given amounts of air, and also in numerous assemblies and meetings, where there were means for estimating the quantity of air with which they were provided.' (*Illustrations of Ventilation*, p. 176.)

These calculations refer to adults; but the greater delicacy of the organization of children, and their feebler ability to resist the action of deleterious agents, together with their greater rapidity of respiration, demand for them at least an equal supply. Proceeding upon this basis, and multiplying the amount required per minute, by the minutes of a school session of three hours, we have eighteen hundred cubic feet for each pupil, and for two hundred and fifty pupils—the average maximum attendance in one of our large school-rooms,—450,000 cubic feet, as the requisite quantity for each half-day. The rooms contain about 22,500 cubic feet only: so that a volume of air, equal to the whole cubic contents of each room, should be supplied and removed, in some way, ten times every three hours, in order to sustain the atmosphere in them at a point which is perfectly wholesome and salubrious. For such a purpose, the present means are so entirely inadequate, that it was found that the air of a room became tainted in ten or fifteen minutes. In ordinary cases, four per cent. of the air expelled from the lungs is carbonic acid. The presence of five or six per cent. will extinguish a lamp, and with difficulty support life. It is therefore certain, that the air would become deprived of all its best properties in one school session.

Le Blanc,—who examined many public and private buildings, in France and elsewhere,—speaking of the Chamber of Deputies, where sixty-four cubic feet of fresh air *per minute*, were allowed to each individual, states, that of 10,000 parts escaping by the ventilator, twenty-five were carbonic acid; while the quantity of this gas ordinarily present in the atmosphere, is but $\frac{4}{10000}$. Dr. Reid states, that he never gave less than thirty cubic feet of air a minute, to each member of the House of Commons, when the room was crowded; and once he introduced, for weeks successively, sixty cubic feet a minute, to each member.

The very earliest impressions received by your Committee, in their visits to the school-houses, satisfied them of their lamentable condition in regard to ventilation. In some of them, they found the air so bad, that it could be perceived before reaching the school-rooms, and in the open entries; and the children, as they passed up and down the stairs, had their clothes and hair perceptibly impregnated with the fœtid poison. And these circumstances existed in houses, where the open windows testified, upon our entrance, that the Masters had endeavored to improve the atmosphere by all the means placed at their disposal. To this custom,—*that of opening windows in school hours*,—the Instructors are compelled to resort, for relief; and this expedient, certainly, is the lesser of two very great evils. Your Committee found in their visits to the school-houses, during the severest days of last winter, that no school-room had less than three, and that more than half of them had at least seven windows open for the admission of pure air. Yet this dangerous and injurious practice only mitigates the evils of bad air, by creating others. It produces colds and inflammatory complaints, and the air still remains impure, offensive, and highly deleterious; sufficiently so, to affect the delicate organization of childhood, to blight its elasticity, and destroy that healthful physical action, on which depends the vigor of maturer years.

We have already referred to some of the more violent and sudden effects of exposure to air highly charged with these noxious gasses. There are others, which are more remote, and, to a superficial observer, less noticeable. But they are not, therefore, of less importance. The grave consequences of a long-continued exposure to an atmosphere but a little below the standard of natural purity, although not immediately incompatible with life, can hardly be over

stated. These effects are often so insidious in their approach, as hardly to attract notice; they are therefore the more necessary to be provided against in advance.

Children, confined in the atmosphere of these schools, soon lose the ruddy and cheerful complexions of perfect health which belong to youth, and acquire the sallow and depressed countenances which might reasonably be expected in over-worked factory operatives, or the tenants of apartments unvisited by the sun or air. We noticed in many faces, also, particularly towards the close of a school session, a feverish flush, so bright that it might easily deceive an inexperienced eye, and be mistaken for a healthy bloom. Alas! it was only a transient and ineffectual effort of nature to produce, by *overaction*, those salutary changes which she really wanted the *power* to accomplish.

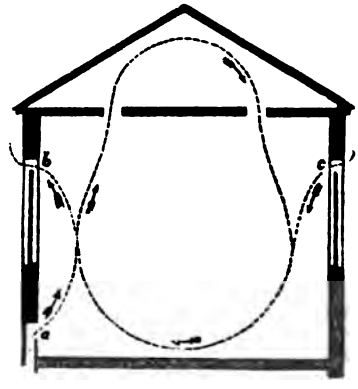
The condition of the pupils, depressed as they are by these influences, is constantly demanding increased exertions from their Instructors, while the requirements of the age place the standard of education at an elevation sufficiently difficult of access under the most favorable circumstances.

Your committee are satisfied, therefore, that the present state of the school-houses daily impairs the health of the pupils and Instructors, and the efficiency of the schools for the purposes of instruction. That its continuance will produce, not only immediate discomfort and disease, but, by its effect on the constitutions of the children, who must pass in them a large portion of those years most susceptible to physical injury, will directly and certainly reduce the amount of constitutional vigor hereafter to be possessed by that large mass of our population, which now and hereafter is to receive its education in these schools.

Although the atmosphere in the different school-houses varied very much in particular cases, either owing to the time of the visits, or from the amount of attention and intelligence of the Masters, yet in none of them was it at all satisfactory; not one of them was furnished with any useful or systematic means of ventilation. Every one, in order to be kept in a tolerably comfortable condition in this respect, required the frequent and laborious attention of the Instructors, and often to a degree which must have seriously interfered with their legitimate duties.

All of the rooms are provided with registers, in or near the ceiling, ostensibly for the purpose of discharging the foul air, but which your Committee believe to be almost entirely useless. The openings through the roof into the open air, where they exist, are so small, as to be quite inadequate to relieve the attics; so that the bad air must accumulate there, and, after becoming condensed be gradually forced back again, to be breathed over by the same lungs which have already rejected it. The condition of the apartments, after undergoing a repetition of such a process, for any length of time, can easily be imagined."

A reference to the subjoined diagram will explain at once the present state of the Ventilation of the School-Houses.



a. Heated air from furnace.
b. Hot air escaping through open window.
c. Cold air entering through open window.

It may be a matter of surprise, to some, perhaps, that the subject of ventilating our school-rooms has not long ago received the consideration necessary to remedy, or even to have prevented altogether, the evils of which we at present complain. But these evils have not always existed. It should be recollected, that the stoves and furnaces now in common use, are of comparatively modern date; and moreover, that the ample fireplaces, which they have displaced, always proved perfectly efficient ventilators, although, it is true, somewhat at the expense of comfort and fuel. But in closing the fireplaces, and substituting more economical methods of warming, evils of far greater magnitude have been entailed upon us.

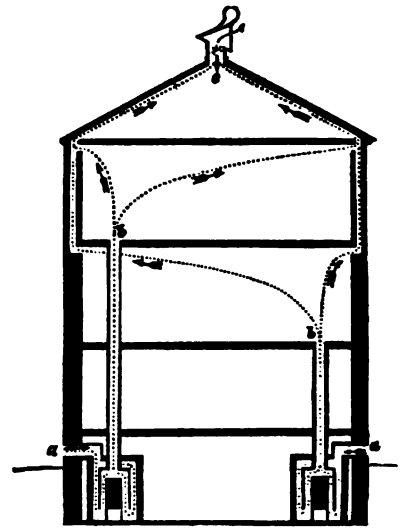
It is evident, that, in order to carry into operation any complete system of ventilation, there must be connected with it some apparatus to regulate the temperature of the air to be admitted, as well as to ensure its ample supply. Your committee have accordingly examined, with much care, this part of the subject. A majority of the buildings are furnished with 'hot-air furnaces,' situated in the cellars; the remainder with stoves, placed in the school-rooms themselves. Most of the furnaces possess great heating powers,—indeed much greater than is necessary, if the heat generated by them were properly economized, or could be made available;—but, as now constructed, they are almost worse than useless, consuming large quantities of fuel, and, at the same time, so overheating the air which passes through them, as to deprive it of some of its best qualities, and render it unsuitable for respiration. It is difficult to define, with precision, and by analysis, the changes which take place in air subjected to the action of metallic surfaces, at a high temperature. The unpleasant dryness of the air can be detected, very readily, by the senses; and the headache, and other unpleasant sensations, experienced by those who breathe such an atmosphere, would seem to prove a deficiency of oxygen and electricity. The rapid oxydation and destruction of the ironwork of the furnaces themselves, also tends to confirm this supposition.

It has been ascertained, by repeated examinations, that the temperature of the air, when it arrives at the rooms, is often as high as 500° and 600° Fahrenheit. Of course, it is entirely impossible to diffuse air, thus heated, in the parts of the room occupied by the pupils. Much of it passes rapidly out of the windows, which may be open; the rest to the ceiling, where it remains until partially cooled, gradually finding its way down by the walls and closed windows, to the lower parts of the room. The consequences are, that, while much more caloric is sent into the apartment than is requisite, many of the pupils are compelled to remain in an atmosphere which is at once cold and stagnant.

The source of the cold air for supplying the furnaces, is not always free from objection; some being drawn from the neighborhood of drains, cesspools, &c. This is a radical defect, as it must inevitably affect the whole air of the building. The boxes, which admit the cold air to the furnaces, are much too contracted; some of them being only a few inches square, when their capacity ought to be nearly as many feet. The air enters the 'cold-air' chamber of the furnace, at its top, whence it is intended to be carried down between thin brick walls, (which *should be cold*, but which are often heated to 300° Fahrenheit,) to the lower part of the furnace, and thence into the 'hot-air' chambers, and so on to the rooms above. It is obvious that the 'hot-air' chamber must be heated to a temperature far beyond that of the 'cold-air' chamber, in order to compel the air, against its own natural tendencies, to pass into it with any velocity or volume, and the very attempt to accomplish this, almost defeats itself; as, by driving the fire for this purpose, the 'cold-air' chamber becomes still hotter, so that at last the contest is decided only by the greater calorific capabilities which the iron plates possess over the brick wall. At any rate, the temperature of the iron is frequently raised to a *red* and even a *white heat*, by running the furnaces in the ordinary way. This soon destroys them, and they require consequently to be frequently renewed. In addition to all this waste of fuel and material, the folly of attempting, in any way, to warm school-rooms whose windows are freely opened to the admission of an atmosphere, at the low temperature of our winter climate, may well claim a passing notice.

The following diagrams will exhibit the mode in which the two houses already referred to, are now ventilated.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ELIOT SCHOOL-HOUSE.



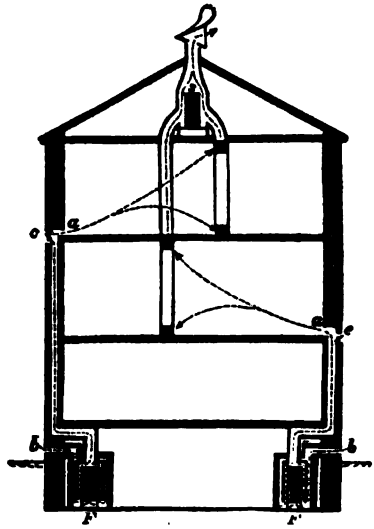
a. a. Cold air channels to furnaces.
b. b. Heated air.
The arrows show the currents of air from the furnaces to the outlet at the roof.
c. Gas burner.

This house was entirely without any external opening through the roof. The other arrangements in it presented nothing peculiar. The 'exits and the entrances' were all as deficient in capacity as usual. The first care was to perforate the roof. This was accordingly done, and an opening of sufficient size made to carry a turn-cap of two and a half feet in diameter in its smallest part. The cold-air shaft, with an area of only one hundred and forty square inches, was enlarged so as to measure six hundred, or about four times its former size. The necessary repairing of one furnace, gave us an opportunity to enlarge its air-chamber very considerably. Water, for evaporation, was placed within a chamber of the furnace. The registers in the rooms opening into the attic, being below the ceiling, were raised to the highest point, and increased in size.

Although we think the want of connection of the cowl at the roof with the registers from the rooms by closed tubes, a decided disadvantage, we were satisfied, on the whole, with the results; as the alterations gave great relief. These changes were made during the month of February, 1846, and the only inconvenience suffered during the winter, was the occasional rise of the temperature to five or ten degrees beyond the desired point. The atmosphere has lost its bad odor almost entirely, and is of course much more agreeable. A gas burner has lately been placed in the throat of the ventilator, for use when extra power is needed.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ENDICOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

This house, as well as the preceding, was heated by furnaces in the cellar, one for each room. Its ventilating flues were arranged in a better manner than usual, opening into little separate chimneys which pierced the roof near the copings. But they had proved to be insufficient, both on account of their size and situation. They were also affected sensibly by down-gusts, which completely reversed their action in certain states of the atmosphere and wind.



a. a. Currents of heated air passing to the ventilating flues.
b. b. Cold air channels.
c. c. Cold air valves opening upon the hot-air currents.
F. F. Furnaces.
S. Stove in ventilator in the attic.

After enlarging the cold-air shaft to a proper size, it was thought best, (as the hot-air pipe passed through the brick wall, so that it could not easily be altered,) to make an opening through the outer wall directly behind the register which delivered the hot-air into the room. An aperture of sixteen inches square, commanded by a revolving damper, was therefore cut. It has been found to answer exceedingly well; as we now get a much larger volume, of more temperate and purer air.

For the delivery of the bad air, the following arrangements were adopted. Large wooden boxes, or air-shafts, were carried from the floor of each story into the attic, where they communicate, by closed metal pipes of the same size, with a tin cylinder, three feet in diameter, which is continued to the roof, terminating there in a large cowl. There are openings, at the top and bottom of each room, into the ventilating shafts, which can be used separately, or together, as the state of the atmosphere requires.

An air-tight coal stove, placed within the drum, in the attic, completes the apparatus. This has been only recently constructed; but from results already produced, there is no doubt of its entire ability to accomplish all that is desirable.

The same general statements which have been made with regard to the Grammar School-houses, will apply to the Primary School-houses. They are undoubtedly in as bad a condition, to say the least; and from their smaller capacities in proportion to the number of pupils which they contain, require particular attention.

For ventilation of these, and the Recitation rooms, which resemble them in structure and size, your Committee recommend the use of the double fireplace* or the Ventilating Stove, which will be hereafter described. If the latter be used, ventilating flues, opening at the ceiling, must be carried out of the roof.

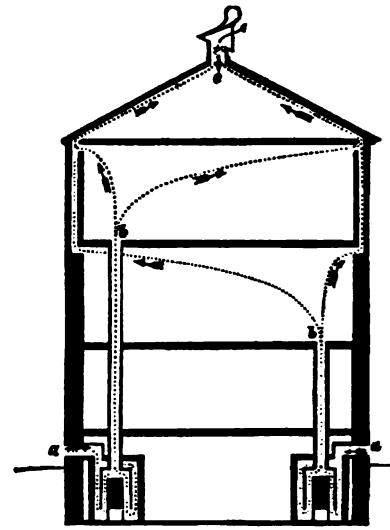
It only remains for your Committee to describe, more particularly, the system of ventilation which they consider to be, in its general features, best adapted for the school-houses under the care of the Board. Much of it has already been anticipated in other parts of this Report; and the following plan will show, at a glance, better than any description can do, its particular features.

* See page 38 of this Essay for a diagram and description.

The following diagrams will exhibit the mode in which the two houses already referred to, are now ventilated.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ELIOT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

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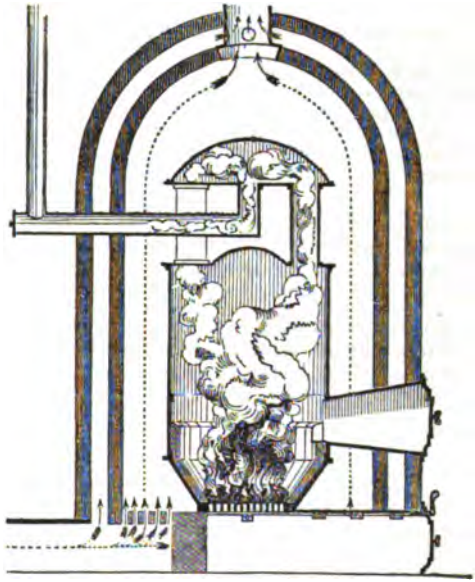
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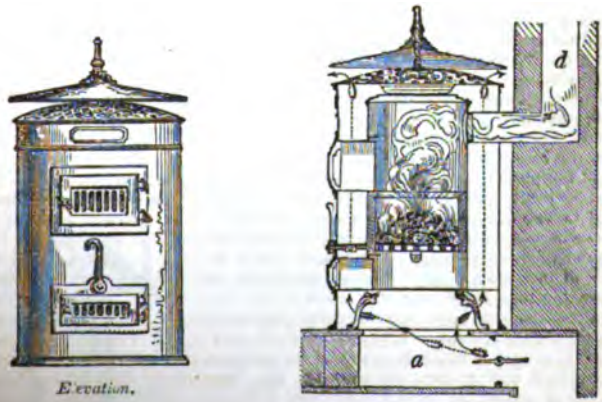
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process commences as soon as the temperature is raised even a single degree. The outer walls remain cold; the floor above is not endangered, and the whole building is rapidly filled with an atmosphere which is at once salubrious and delightful.



Section of Chilson's Furnace.

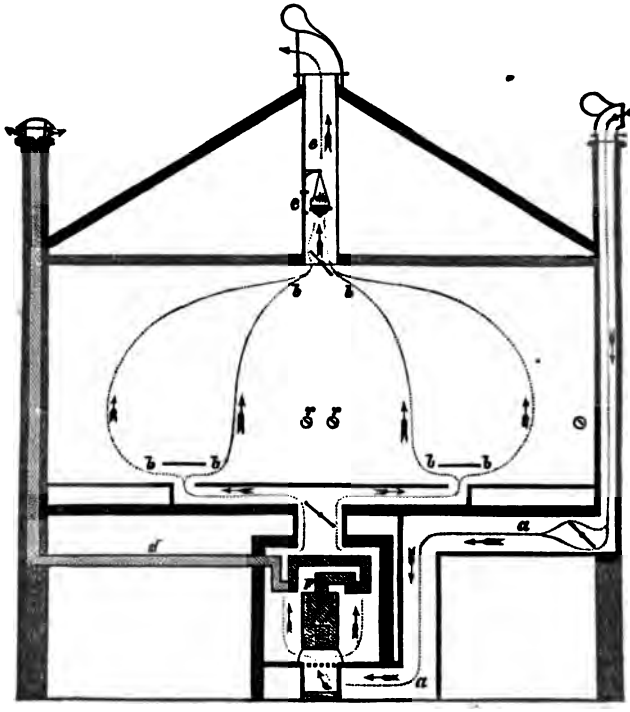


Elevation. *Section.*

VENTILATING STOVE.

For the houses which we found without the Hot Air Furnaces, as also for the Recitation and other single rooms, the invention of a Stove which shoul

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE BEST GENERAL PLAN FOR WARMING AND VENTILATING THE GRAMMAR SCHOOL-HOUSES.



a. a. Cold-air channel, three feet in diameter, opening underneath the Furnace.

F. Furnace, three feet in diameter in a brick chamber ten feet square. The walls twelve inches thick.

d. Smoke flue, surmounted with Mr. Tredgold's chimney top.

b. b. b. b. Currents of warmed air, passing from the furnace, through a main flue of four feet in diameter, which supplies two branch flues. From these the air is diffused into all parts of the room, by means of the tablets which are placed over the mouths of the registers.

e. The ventilating shaft, two and a half feet in diameter, into which the foul gasses are collected, and from which they are finally discharged into the open air.

c. An Argand Lamp, to be lighted from the attic.

r. r. r. Registers, by means of which the whole circulation is controlled.

The Committee recommend attention to the following *general rules for Ventilation and Warming.*

1. The air must be taken from a pure source. The higher parts of the building are the best, as thereby all impurities, which often contaminate air taken from near the surface of the ground, are avoided.

2. In order to ensure a constant and abundant supply, the air shaft must be surmounted with a cowl or hood of some kind, with its mouth turned *towards the wind.*

3. The fresh air should in all cases be carried entirely beneath the furnace.

If the cellar is wet and the situation low, the underground culvert or channel should be of brick, laid in cement.

4. The furnace chamber should be so large that it can be entered at any time, without the necessity of taking down walls, for the purpose of repairs, or to observe the temperature. A large earthen pan for the evaporation of water should never be omitted. This should be kept always perfectly clean, and the water required to be frequently changed.

5. A thermometer should be constantly at hand, and the *temperature in the warm-air chamber should never be allowed to exceed that of boiling water.* A still lower temperature is often desirable. If this point is secured, the hot air can be conducted with perfect safety under floors, or into any part of the building, for its better diffusion.

6. The openings for the admission of the warm air into the rooms, should be as numerous as possible. The long platform occupied by the teachers, by being perforated in front for its whole length, would be an excellent diffusing surface

7. Openings of ample size must be made in the highest points of the ceiling, to be connected at the top of the roof with a turn-cap or louvre, the former being always surmounted with a vane. It is better that the ceiling should be perforated at its centre, and there is no objection to running the ventilating shaft, at first, horizontally, if the perpendicular and terminal portion of it is of considerable length.

8. *It is highly important to have a power of some sort, within the apparatus at its top,* for the purpose of compelling constant action, and of increasing the force of the apparatus, whenever the state of the weather, or the crowding of the room, render it necessary.* For this purpose, the most convenient and economical means are furnished by a gas burner, an Argand lamp, or a stove; and one of these should be in constant readiness for use, when neither the velocity of the wind, or the low temperature of the external aimosphere are sufficient to produce the desired effect.

9. All the openings and flues for the admission of pure air, and the discharge of the foul air, should be of the *maximum* size; that is, they should be calculated for the *largest numbers* which the apartment is ever intended to accommodate.

10. Valves must be placed in all the flues, and so arranged as to be easily regulated without leaving the rooms into which they open.

11. The best average temperature for school-rooms, is from 64° to 68° Fahrenheit; this range including that of the healthiest climates in their best seasons.

For the purpose of summer ventilation, and for occasional use in moderate weather, fireplaces of good size should be constructed in all the new houses, at least. They should always be double, and furnished with large air chambers, which communicate with the open air. When not in use, they must be closed with tight boards or shutters, as they would otherwise interfere with the regular ventilation.

With these arrangements, intelligently controlled by the Teachers, your Committee believe that an atmosphere will be secured which will be perfectly agreeable and salubrious; which will lighten the labors of the Teachers, and promote the comfort, health, and happiness, of the thousands of children who are daily congregated in our Public Schools."

This Report was received, and the same Committee were "directed to adapt to each school-room such apparatus, if any, as may be required to secure to them proper ventilation in winter and summer, and to make such alterations and arrangements of the furnaces as may be required." To be able to execute this order, the Committee applied to the City Authorities for an appropriation of $4,000, which was readily granted, after an examination by a Joint Committee of the Board of Aldermen and Common Council, of the school-houses in which the improved ventilating apparatus had been introduced The following is an extract from the Report of the Joint Committee·

* This in practice has not been found necessary, although it may be sometimes.

"In order to be fully satisfied, the Committee visited the Endicott School, where the apparatus was in operation. The day was exceedingly wet and disagreeable, and yet the air of the rooms was found in an unobjectionable condition. The masters fully sustained the representations of the petitioners; and from their statements, as well as from their own observations, the Committee were satisfied of the beneficial effects of said apparatus.

In order, however, to have a more full investigation of the matter, the Committee, on a subsequent day, visited the Johnson School and the Boylston School. The day was dry and cold, and they found the air in the Johnson School in a tolerably good condition. This is a girls' school; and it is well known that the pupils in such schools are neater, and attend in cleaner and more tidy apparel, than the pupils in the boys' schools.

In the Boylston School, however, the Committee found the air very disagreeable and oppressive; and they could not but feel the importance of executing some plan of relief."

If the Committee of Ways and Means,—or whatever the money-compelling power may be called—in every city, and town, and district, would satisfy themselves by actual examination, of the necessity of a more perfect system of ventilation in all school-rooms, or in all public halls where a large number of human beings are congregated for a considerable length of time, and where fires or lamps are burning, a reform would be speedily introduced in this respect.

With the means thus placed at their disposal, the Committee applied themselves diligently to the duty of ventilating the school-houses—and at the close of the year, they had the satisfaction of announcing in their Final Report, "that the Grammar School-houses of Boston are now in a better condition in respect to their ventilation, than any other Public Schools in the world." The Committee thus sum up the results of their labors.

"The diversity of arrangement and the modifications in our plans which we have been compelled by circumstances to adopt, have had their advantages, and enabled us to arrive at the best results, and to satisfy ourselves entirely in regard to the particular *set of apparatus* which we can recommend with confidence for future use as decidedly the most effective and convenient. We have therefore furnished drawings and specifications of the set of apparatus which we recommend.

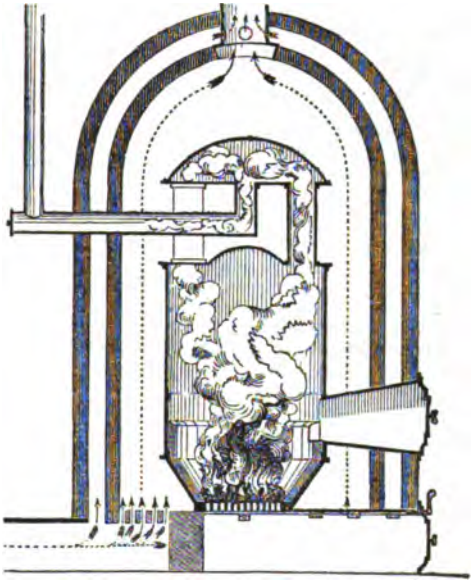
Chilson's Furnace.

Your Committee have made themselves acquainted not only with all the Furnaces which have been manufactured in this place, and its neighborhood, but with all those which have been exhibited here recently. Most of them show much ingenuity of contrivance and excellence of workmanship; but are all, so far as we can judge, inferior in many respects, to the one invented by Mr. Chilson, a model and plans of which we now exhibit, and recommend as superior to all others.

It is simple in its structure, easily managed, will consume the fuel perfectly, and with a *moderate* fire. It is fitted for wood or coal. The fire place is broad and shallow, and is lined with soapstone or fire-brick, which not only makes it perfectly safe and durable, but modifies very materially the usual effect of the fire upon the iron pot.

The principal radiating surfaces are wrought iron, of a suitable thickness for service, while at the same time the heat of the smallest fire is communicated immediately to the air chamber. The mode of setting this Furnace we consider essential; more especially the plan of admitting the air to the furnace at its lowest point, as it then rises naturally into the apartments above. This

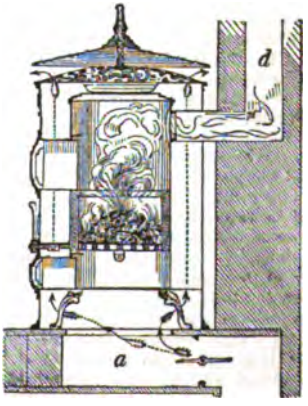
process commences as soon as the temperature is raised even a single degree. The outer walls remain cold; the floor above is not endangered, and the whole building is rapidly filled with an atmosphere which is at once salubrious and delightful.



Section of Chilson's Furnace.



Elevation.



Section.

VENTILATING STOVE.

For the houses which we found without the Hot Air Furnaces, as also for the Recitation and other single rooms, the invention of a Stove which shoul

answer the same purpose became essential. One was therefore contrived; and having been found in its earlier and ruder forms to be of great utility, it has since been improved in its appearance, as well as in the convenience of its management.

These Stoves are composed of two cylinders, the *inner* containing a fire chamber, which is lined with soap-stone or fire brick, while the *outer* constitutes a chamber for warming the air, which is introduced into it beneath the inner cylinder, from an air box directly connected with the external atmosphere.

They possess the following advantages:—

1. They are in fact *furnaces*, having distinct and capacious air chambers.
2. They insure, when properly set, that *supply of fresh air* which is *indispensable to the proper ventilation* of any apartment.
3. The Regulating Distributor, which is movable or fixed, as may be desired, determines with great accuracy the amount and temperature of the admitted air.
4. The outer cylinder is never hot enough to burn the person or clothing, or to be uncomfortable to those who are situated in its immediate vicinity.
5. They are constructed with the utmost regard to efficiency, durability, compactness, and neatness of appearance.

These Stoves have been furnished to the Schools whenever your Committee have required their use, and at manufacturers' prices, without any profit whatever to the inventor and patentee.

They may be used with advantage in the largest rooms, when the cellars are unfit for Furnaces, or when it is preferred to have the fire in the room itself. The Johnson, Wells, Hawes, and Winthrop School-houses are warmed entirely by them.

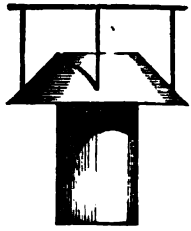
The discharging ventiducts have been made in various ways; some of wood, some of metal, and others of 'lath and plaster.' Some have opened at the ceiling only, and in but one part of the room, while others have been equally divided at opposite sides of the apartment. Our rule is this:—If the Heating Apparatus is at one end of an oblong room, the ventiduct is placed at the opposite. If the stove or furnace flue is at the middle of the longest side, the ventiducts are placed at each end, and are of course reduced to one half the size of the single one.

The *best* manner of constructing them is shown by the drawing, *Fig.* 1, and described on the following page.

There is great economy in carrying the boxes to the floor in all cases. In this way the room can be kept warm and the air pure in the coldest and most windy days.

The registers at the top and bottom can be used separately or together, as may be desired.

It is necessary and advantageous to apply some kind of cap or other covering upon the ventiducts where they terminate above the roof. It is necessary as a protection from the rain and the down blasts of wind, and it is also very advantageous to be enabled in this way to avail ourselves of the power of the wind to create an active upward current. We used at first the turncap or cowl invented by Mr. Espy, and with satisfactory results. It is undoubtedly the best movable top known; but is noisy, and somewhat liable to get out of working order. These objections to the movable tops have long been known, and various stationary tops have been invented, and have been partially successful. An improved Stationary Top, or Ejecting Ventilator, as it is called, has been invented during the past year by Mr. Emerson. It is shown in the drawing, and consists of the frustrum of a cone attached to the top of a tube, open in its whole extent, and surmounted by a fender which is supported upon rods, and answers the double purpose of keeping out the rain and of so directing or turning a blast of wind upon the structure, as that in what-



Ejecting Ventilator.

ever direction it fall., the effect, that of causing a strong upward draft, will be very uniform and constant.

Being satisfied that this Stationary Ejector possessed all the advantages of the best tops hitherto known, without the disadvantages of either of them, we have adopted it for several of the houses last ventilated, and find it in all respects satisfactory. We therefore recommend it for general use.

The Injector may generally be dispensed with, but in situations unfavorable for introducing air, it may be sometimes found convenient, or even necessary. [Mr. Emerson recommends the use of the Injecto.. whenever a ventilating stove or furnace is used, so as to secure the admission of a quantity of pure air, warmed by the heating surfaces of the stove or furnace, equal to the quantity of air rendered impure by respiration withdrawn by the Ejector. He refuses to allow his ventilators to be placed upon any school-house which is not supplied with fresh warm air.]



Injecting Ventilators.

Ventiducts.

The discharging ventiducts should be situated at the part of the rooms most distant from the stove or register of the furnace, and should always, if possible, be constructed in or upon an *interior* wall or partition, and an outer brick wall must, if possible, be avoided. They should be made of thoroughly seasoned sound pine boards, smoothed on the inner sides, and put together with two-inch iron screws. The outside finish may be of lath and plaster, or they may be projected backwards into a closet or entry, as shown in Figure 3. They must be carried entirely to the floor, and should be fitted at the top and bottom with a swivel blind, whose capacity is equal to that of the ventiduct into which it opens. This blind may be governed by stay rods or pulleys. The elevation gives a view of the ventiducts for a building of three stories, and shows the best mode of packing them, so as to avoid injuring the appearance of the rooms.

These ventiducts must be *kept entirely separate* to the main discharger at the roof, as any other arrangement would impair or destroy their utility.

The size of the ventilators and ventiducts must correspond to the capacity of the room. and the number it is intended to accommodate.

A room containing sixty scholars is found to require a discharging duct of fourteen inches in diameter. A room for one hundred scholars requires the tube to be eighteen inches; and a room for two hundred scholars requires it to be twenty-four inches.

The *fresh air ventiducts should exceed in capacity* those for carrying off the impure air by about *fifty per cent.*; so that there will then always be a surplus or plenum supply, and the little currents of cold which press in at the crevices of the doors and windows will be entirely prevented.

The section shown in Fig. 3 exhibits a very convenient mode of bringing the cold air to the ventilating stoves in a three story building in connection with the smoke flues.

stated. These effects are often so insidious in their approach, as hardly to attract notice; they are therefore the more necessary to be provided against in advance.

Children, confined in the atmosphere of these schools, soon lose the ruddy and cheerful complexions of perfect health which belong to youth, and acquire the sallow and depressed countenances which might reasonably be expected in over-worked factory operatives, or the tenants of apartments unvisited by the sun or air. We noticed in many faces, also, particularly towards the close of a school session, a feverish flush, so bright that it might easily deceive an inexperienced eye, and be mistaken for a healthy bloom. Alas! it was only a transient and ineffectual effort of nature to produce, by *overaction*, those salutary changes which she really wanted the *power* to accomplish.

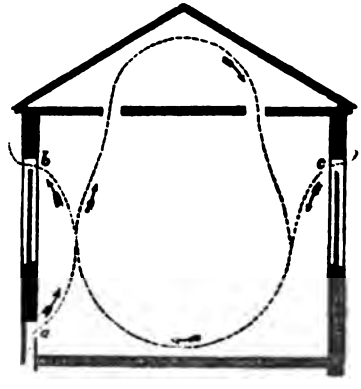
The condition of the pupils, depressed as they are by these influences, is constantly demanding increased exertions from their Instructors, while the requirements of the age place the standard of education at an elevation sufficiently difficult of access under the most favorable circumstances.

Your committee are satisfied, therefore, that the present state of the school-houses daily impairs the health of the pupils and Instructors, and the efficiency of the schools for the purposes of instruction. That its continuance will produce, not only immediate discomfort and disease, but, by its effect on the constitutions of the children, who must pass in them a large portion of those years most susceptible to physical injury, will directly and certainly reduce the amount of constitutional vigor hereafter to be possessed by that large mass of our population, which now and hereafter is to receive its education in these schools.

Although the atmosphere in the different school-houses varied very much in particular cases, either owing to the time of the visits, or from the amount of attention and intelligence of the Masters, yet in none of them was it at all satisfactory; not one of them was furnished with any useful or systematic means of ventilation. Every one, in order to be kept in a tolerably comfortable condition in this respect, required the frequent and laborious attention of the Instructors, and often to a degree which must have seriously interfered with their legitimate duties.

All of the rooms are provided with registers, in or near the ceiling, ostensibly for the purpose of discharging the foul air, but which your Committee believe to be almost entirely useless. The openings through the roof into the open air, where they exist, are so small, as to be quite inadequate to relieve the attics; so that the bad air must accumulate there, and, after becoming condensed be gradually forced back again, to be breathed over by the same lungs which have already rejected it. The condition of the apartments, after undergoing a repetition of such a process, for any length of time, can easily be imagined."

A reference to the subjoined diagram will explain at once the present state of the Ventilation of the School-Houses.



a. Heated air from furnace.
b. Hot air escaping through open window.
c. Cold air entering through open window.

It may be a matter of surprise, to some, perhaps, that the subject of ventilating our school-rooms has not long ago received the consideration necessary to remedy, or even to have prevented altogether, the evils of which we at present complain. But these evils have not always existed. It should be recollected, that the stoves and furnaces now in common use, are of comparatively modern date; and moreover, that the ample fireplaces, which they have displaced, always proved perfectly efficient ventilators, although, it is true, somewhat at the expense of comfort and fuel. But in closing the fireplaces, and substituting more economical methods of warming, evils of far greater magnitude have been entailed upon us.

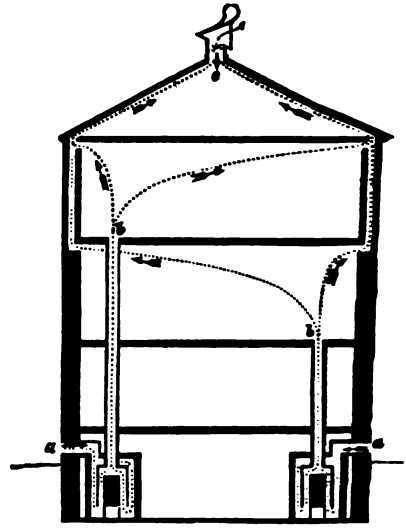
It is evident, that, in order to carry into operation any complete system of ventilation, there must be connected with it some apparatus to regulate the temperature of the air to be admitted, as well as to ensure its ample supply. Your committee have accordingly examined, with much care, this part of the subject. A majority of the buildings are furnished with 'hot-air furnaces,' situated in the cellars; the remainder with stoves, placed in the school-rooms themselves. Most of the furnaces possess great heating powers,—indeed much greater than is necessary, if the heat generated by them were properly economized, or could be made available;—but, as now constructed, they are almost worse than useless, consuming large quantities of fuel, and, at the same time, so overheating the air which passes through them, as to deprive it of some of its best qualities, and render it unsuitable for respiration. It is difficult to define, with precision, and by analysis, the changes which take place in air subjected to the action of metallic surfaces, at a high temperature. The unpleasant dryness of the air can be detected, very readily, by the senses; and the headache, and other unpleasant sensations, experienced by those who breathe such an atmosphere, would seem to prove a deficiency of oxygen and electricity. The rapid oxydation and destruction of the ironwork of the furnaces themselves, also tends to confirm this supposition.

It has been ascertained, by repeated examinations, that the temperature of the air, when it arrives at the rooms, is often as high as 500° and 600° Fahrenheit. Of course, it is entirely impossible to diffuse air, thus heated, in the parts of the room occupied by the pupils. Much of it passes rapidly out of the windows, which may be open; the rest to the ceiling, where it remains until partially cooled, gradually finding its way down by the walls and closed windows, to the lower parts of the room. The consequences are, that, while much more caloric is sent into the apartment than is requisite, many of the pupils are compelled to remain in an atmosphere which is at once cold and stagnant.

The source of the cold air for supplying the furnaces, is not always free from objection; some being drawn from the neighborhood of drains, cesspools, &c. This is a radical defect, as it must inevitably affect the whole air of the building. The boxes, which admit the cold air to the furnaces, are much too contracted; some of them being only a few inches square, when their capacity ought to be nearly as many feet. The air enters the 'cold-air' chamber of the furnace, at its top, whence it is intended to be carried down between thin brick walls, (which *should be cold*, but which are often heated to 300° Fahrenheit,) to the lower part of the furnace, and thence into the 'hot-air' chambers, and so on to the rooms above. It is obvious that the 'hot-air' chamber must be heated to a temperature far beyond that of the 'cold-air' chamber, in order to compel the air, against its own natural tendencies, to pass into it with any velocity or volume, and the very attempt to accomplish this, almost defeats itself; as, by driving the fire for this purpose, the 'cold-air' chamber becomes still hotter, so that at last the contest is decided only by the greater calorific capabilities which the iron plates possess over the brick wall. At any rate, the temperature of the iron is frequently raised to a *red* and even a *white heat*, by running the furnaces in the ordinary way. This soon destroys them, and they require consequently to be frequently renewed. In addition to all this waste of fuel and material, the folly of attempting, in any way, to warm school-rooms whose windows are freely opened to the admission of an atmosphere, at the low temperature of our winter climate, may well claim a passing notice.

The following diagrams will exhibit the mode in which the two houses already referred to, are now ventilated.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ELIOT SCHOOL-HOUSE.



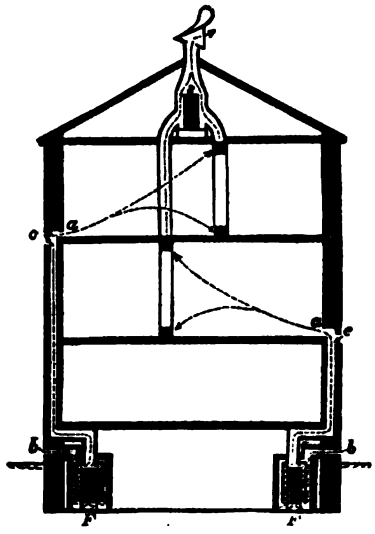
a. a. Cold air channels to furnaces.
b. b. Heated air.
The arrows show the currents of air from the furnaces to the outlet at the roof.
c. Gas burner.

This house was entirely without any external opening through the roof. The other arrangements in it presented nothing peculiar. The 'exits and the entrances' were all as deficient in capacity as usual. The first care was to perforate the roof. This was accordingly done, and an opening of sufficient size made to carry a turn-cap of two and a half feet in diameter in its smallest part. The cold-air shaft, with an area of only one hundred and forty square inches, was enlarged so as to measure six hundred, or about four times its former size. The necessary repairing of one furnace, gave us an opportunity to enlarge its air-chamber very considerably. Water, for evaporation, was placed within a chamber of the furnace. The registers in the rooms opening into the attic, being below the ceiling, were raised to the highest point, and increased in size.

Although we think the want of connection of the cowl at the roof with the registers from the rooms by closed tubes, a decided disadvantage, we were satisfied, on the whole, with the results; as the alterations gave great relief. These changes were made during the month of February, 1846, and the *only* inconvenience suffered during the winter, was the occasional rise of the temperature to five or ten degrees beyond the desired point. The atmosphere has lost its bad odor almost entirely, and is of course much more a[gree]able. A gas burner has lately been placed in the throat of the ventilat[or] when extra power is needed.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ENDICOTT SCHOOL-HOUS[E].

This house, preceding, was heated by furnaces
one for each r ing flues were arranged in a better m
usual, openin chimneys which pierced the ro
copings. insufficient, both on account of
and situatio ted sensibly by down-gusts, wi
pletely rever tates of the atmosphere and



a. a. Currents of heated air passing to the ventilating flues.
b. b. Cold air channels.
c. c. Cold air valves opening upon the hot-air currents.
F. F. Furnaces.
S. Stove in ventilator in the attic.

After enlarging the cold-air shaft to a proper size, it was thought best, (as the hot-air pipe passed through the brick wall, so that it could not easily be altered,) to make an opening through the outer wall directly behind the register which delivered the hot-air into the room. An aperture of sixteen inches square, commanded by a revolving damper, was therefore cut. It has been found to answer exceedingly well; as we now get a much larger volume, of more temperate and purer air.

For the delivery of the bad air, the following arrangements were adopted. Large wooden boxes, or air-shafts, were carried from the floor of each story into the attic, where they communicate, by closed metal pipes of the same size, with a tin cylinder, three feet in diameter, which is continued to the roof, terminating there in a large cowl. There are openings, at the top and bottom of each room, into the ventilating shafts, which can be used separately, or together, as the state of the atmosphere requires.

An air-tight coal stove, placed within the drum, in the attic, completes the apparatus. This has been only recently constructed; but from results already produced, there is no doubt of its entire ability to accomplish all that is desirable.

The same general statements which have been made with regard to the Grammar School-houses, will apply to the Primary School-houses. They are undoubtedly in as bad a condition, to say the least; and from their smaller capacities in proportion to the number of pupils which they contain, require particular attention.

For ventilation of these, and the Recitation rooms, which resemble them in structure and size, your Committee recommend the use of the double fireplace* or the Ventilating Stove, which will be hereafter described. If the latter be used, ventilating flues, opening at the ceiling, must be carried out of the roof.

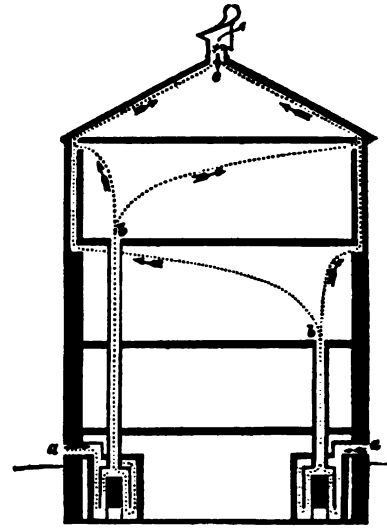
It only remains for your Committee to describe, more particularly, the system ntilation which they consider to be, in its general features, best adapted school-houses under the care of the Board. Much of it has al- been anticipated in other parts of this Report; and the following ow, at a glance, better than any description can do, its particular

* See page 38 of this Essay for a diagram and description.

The following diagrams will exhibit the mode in which the two houses already referred to, are now ventilated.

PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ELIOT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

a. a. Cold air channels to furnaces.
b. b. Heated air.
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c. Gas burner.



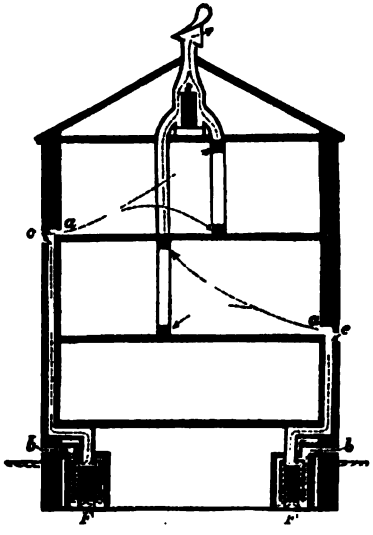
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PLAN OF THE VENTILATION OF THE ENDICOTT SCHOOL-HOUSE.

This house, as well as the preceding, was heated by furnaces in the cellar, one for each room. Its ventilating flues were arranged in a better manner than usual, opening into little separate chimneys which pierced the roof near the copings. But they had proved to be insufficient, both on account of their size and situation. They were also affected sensibly by down-gusts, which completely reversed their action in certain states of the atmosphere and wind.

a. a. Currents of heated air passing to the ventilating flues.
b. b. Cold air channels.
c. c. Cold air valves opening upon the hot-air currents.
F. F. Furnaces.
S. Stove in ventilator in the attic.



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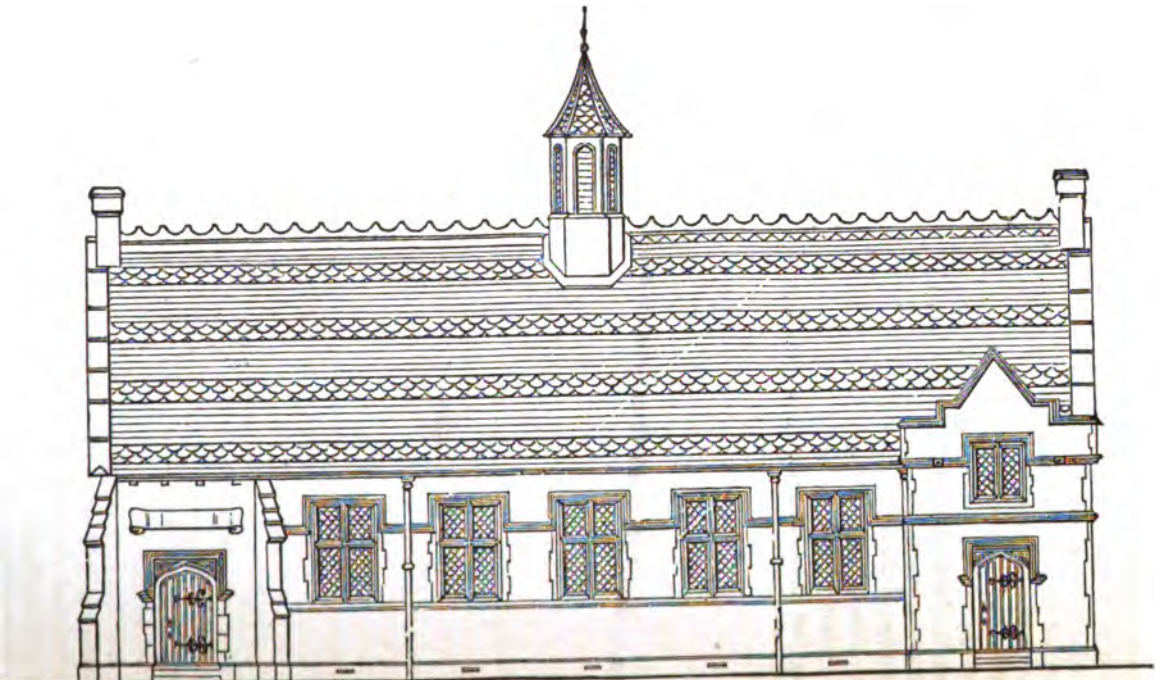
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It only remains for your Committee to describe, more particularly, the system of ventilation which they consider to be, in its general features, best adapted for the school-houses under the care of the Board. Much of it has already been anticipated in other parts of this Report; and the following plan will show, at a glance, better than any description can do, its particular features.

* See page 38 of this Essay for a diagram and description.



PLAN—No. 10. FRONT ELEVATION.



X. VENTILATION

Every apartment of a school-house should be provided with a cheap, simple, and efficient mode of ventilation, by which the air, which is constantly becoming vitiated by respiration, combustion, or other causes, may be constantly flowing out of the room, and its place filled by an adequate supply of fresh air drawn from a pure source, and admitted into the room at the right temperature, of the requisite degree of moisture, and without any perceptible current. These objects may be attained by attention to the following particulars:

1. The location of the school-house must be healthy, and all causes—such as defective drains, stagnant water, decaying animal or vegetable substances, and manufactures, whose operations evolve offensive and deleterious gases—calculated to vitiate the external atmosphere, from which the air of the school-room is supplied, must be removed or obviated.

2. The means provided for ventilation must be sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows, and other lateral openings, which are intended primarily for the admission of light, passage to and from the apartment, and similar purposes. Any dependence on the opening of doors and windows, except in summer, will subject the occupants of the room near such points to currents of cold air when the pores of the skin are open, and when such extreme and rapid changes of temperature are particularly disagreeable and dangerous.

3. Any openings in the ceiling for the discharge of vitiated air into the attic, and hence to the exterior of the building, or by flues carried up in the wall, no matter how constructed or where placed, can not be depended on for purposes of ventilation, unless systematic arrangements are adopted to effect, in concert with such openings, the introduction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air, in the right condition as to temperature and moisture.

4. All stoves, or other heating apparatus, standing in the apartment to be warmed, and heating only the atmosphere of that apartment, which is constantly becoming more and more vitiated by respiration and other causes, are radically defective, and should be altogether, without delay, and forever discarded.

5. Any apparatus for warming pure air, before it is introduced into the school-room, in which the heating surface becomes *red-hot*, or the air is warmed above the temperature of boiling water, is inconsistent with good ventilation.

6. To effect the combined objects of warming and ventilation, a large quantity of moderately heated air should be introduced in such a manner as to reach every portion of the room, and be passed off by appro-

answer the same purpose became essential. One was therefore contrived; and having been found in its earlier and ruder forms to be of great utility, it has since been improved in its appearance, as well as in the convenience of its management.

These Stoves are composed of two cylinders, the *inner* containing a fire chamber, which is lined with soap-stone or fire brick, while the *outer* constitutes a chamber for warming the air, which is introduced into it beneath the inner cylinder, from an air box directly connected with the external atmosphere.

They possess the following advantages:—

1. They are in fact *furnaces*, having distinct and capacious air chambers.

2. They insure, when properly set, that *supply of fresh air* which is *indispensable to the proper ventilation* of any apartment.

3. The Regulating Distributor, which is movable or fixed, as may be desired, determines with great accuracy the amount and temperature of the admitted air.

4. The outer cylinder is never hot enough to burn the person or clothing, or to be uncomfortable to those who are situated in its immediate vicinity.

5. They are constructed with the utmost regard to efficiency, durability, compactness, and neatness of appearance.

These Stoves have been furnished to the Schools whenever your Committee have required their use, and at manufacturers' prices, without any profit whatever to the inventor and patentee.

They may be used with advantage in the largest rooms, when the cellars are unfit for Furnaces, or when it is preferred to have the fire in the room itself. The Johnson, Wells, Hawes, and Winthrop School-houses are warmed entirely by them.

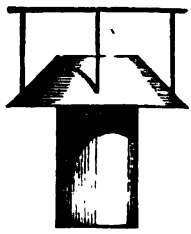
The discharging ventiducts have been made in various ways; some of wood, some of metal, and others of 'lath and plaster.' Some have opened at the ceiling only, and in but one part of the room, while others have been equally divided at opposite sides of the apartment. Our rule is this:—If the Heating Apparatus is at one end of an oblong room, the ventiduct is placed at the opposite. If the stove or furnace flue is at the middle of the longest side, the ventiducts are placed at each end, and are of course reduced to one half the size of the single one.

The *best* manner of constructing them is shown by the drawing, *Fig.* 1, and described on the following page.

There is great economy in carrying the boxes to the floor in all cases. In this way the room can be kept warm and the air pure in the coldest and most windy days.

The registers at the top and bottom can be used separately or together, as may be desired.

It is necessary and advantageous to apply some kind of cap or other covering upon the ventiducts where they terminate above the roof. It is necessary as a protection from the rain and the down blasts of wind, and it is also very advantageous to be enabled in this way to avail ourselves of the power of the wind to create an active upward current. We used at first the turncap or cowl invented by Mr. Espy, and with satisfactory results. It is undoubtedly the best movable top known; but is noisy, and somewhat liable to get out of working order. These objections to the movable tops have long been known, and various stationary tops have been invented, and have been partially successful. An improved Stationary Top, or Ejecting Ventilator, as it is called, has been invented during the past year by Mr. Emerson. It is shown in the drawing, and consists of the frustrum of a cone attached to the top of a tube, open in its whole extent, and surmounted by a fender which is supported upon rods, and answers the double purpose of keeping out the rain and of so directing or turning a blast of wind upon the structure, as that in what-



Ejecting Ventilator.

of warm air flowing into the room, should be supplied with some simple reliable exhaustive power, which can be applied at all seasons of the year, and with a force varying with the demands of the season, and the condition of the air in the apartment.

12. The most simple, economical, and reliable motive power available in most school-houses is heat, or the same process by which the natural upward movements of air are induced and sustained. Heat can be applied to the column of air in a ventilating flue—

1. By carrying up the ventilating flue close beside, or even within the smoke flue, which is used in connection with the heating apparatus.

2. By carrying up the smoke-pipe within the ventilating flue, either the whole length, or in the upper portion only. In a small school-room, the heat from the smoke-pipe carried up for a few feet only in the ventilating flue before it projects above the roof, is a motive power sufficient to sustain a constant draught of cool and vitiated air, into a opening near the floor.

3. By kindling a fire at the bottom, or other convenient point in the ventilating flue—

If the same flue is used for smoke from the fire, and vitiated air from the apartment, some simple self-acting valve or damper should be applied to the opening for the escape of the vitiated air, which shall close at the slightest pressure from the inside of the flue, and thus prevent any reverse current, or down draught, carrying smoke and soot into the apartment.

4. By discharging a jet of steam, or a portion of warm air from the furnace, or other warming apparatus, directly into the ventilating flue.

Any application of heat by which the temperature of the air in the ventilating flue can be raised above the temperature of the apartment to be ventilated, will cause a flow of air from the apartment to sustain the combustion, (if there is a fire in the flue,) and to supply the partial vacuum in the flue, which is caused by the rarefaction of the air in the same.

In all school buildings, when several apartments are to be ventilated, the most effectual, and, all things considered, the most economical mode of securing a motive power, is to construct an upright brick shaft or flue, and in that to build a fire, or carry up the smoke-pipe of the stove, furnace, or other warming apparatus; and then to discharge the ventilating flues from the top or bottom of each apartment, into this upright shaft. The fire-draught will create a partial vacuum in this shaft, to fill which, a draught will be established upon every room with which it is connected by lateral flues. Whenever a shaft of this kind is resorted to, the flues for ventilation may be lateral, and the openings into them may be inserted near the floor.

13. With a flue properly constructed, so as to facilitate the spontaneous upward movement of the warm air within it, and so placed that the [illegible] is not exposed to the chilling influence of external cold, a turncap, [illegible]ted after the plan of Emerson's Ejector, or Mott's Exhausting

REAL SCHOOL AT HANOVER.

	Real Department.						Preparatory Depart.				
Classes.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	Total.
Religion,	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	4	3		25
German,	4	4	4	4	4	4	6	8	8	10	56
French,	4	4	4	4	4	4					24
English,	3	3	4	4							14
Latin,	2	3	4	4	4	5	4				26
Mathematics,	4	4	4	2							14
Arithmetic,	2	2	2	2	4	4	6	6	6	4	38
History,	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1			14
Geography,	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1		15
Nat. Philosophy,	2	2									4
Chem., and Mineralogy,	4	2									6
Nat. History,			2	2	2	2			2	2	12
Penmanship,			2	2	3	3	4	6	6	4	30
Drawing,	2	2	2	2	2	2					12
Draughting,	[3]	[3]									
Singing,	[1]	[1]	[1]	[1]	2	1	2				5
	33	32	34	32	32	32	28	26	26	20	295

The foregoing tables give a general view of the average distribution of lessons in the gymnasium, with its fully organized real classes—also in one of the more complete pro-gymnasiums—and in the real school at Hanover.

No examination of proficiency has yet been prescribed for real scholars, though it is required of candidates for certain branches of public service, as the Post Office, &c., that they have spent two full years in the higher real class and are able to satisfy certain established conditions. As farther respects the method of instruction, it is sometimes the case, where the teaching force is deficient, that a class is taught in two distinct sections at the same time. This usually occurs in instruction in the languages, when those just entering a class are to be instructed in what the older members are already familiar with, and also in arithmetic—one portion of the class being occupied in preparing written exercises, or in solving problems, or otherwise employed, while the teacher is engaged with the other, or they both have the same tasks, so planned that the exercises are of mutual benefit to both divisions. The consecutive method of instruction is also very common. As the Latin and Greek authors are usually read in succession rather than together, so at many schools, arithmetic and geometry are made to alternate with each other, three or six months being given to each in succession; so also, history and geography, or geography and natural history, where both branches are taught by the same instructor.

The labor required of the students out of school hours, in the prepara-

dents in the lower classes. The numbers included in brackets denote lessons in which only portions of the classes are engaged. In the lower class of the pro-gymnasium, four hours are also given to instruction in intuition.

tion of exercises and lessons, occupies one to two hours daily in the lower classes, and three or sometimes even four hours in the middle and upper classes. The written exercises are corrected by the teachers, with the exception of the translations, which in the upper classes are usually only read and corrected orally. The teachers have also the general superintendence of the private studies of the pupils, and are permitted to give private instruction to such as seem to require it.

All the schools possess libraries containing the German classics and popular, literary, and scientific works for the use both of students and teachers. They are sustained by special funds or are in many cases dependent upon the contributions of students and the patrons of the school.

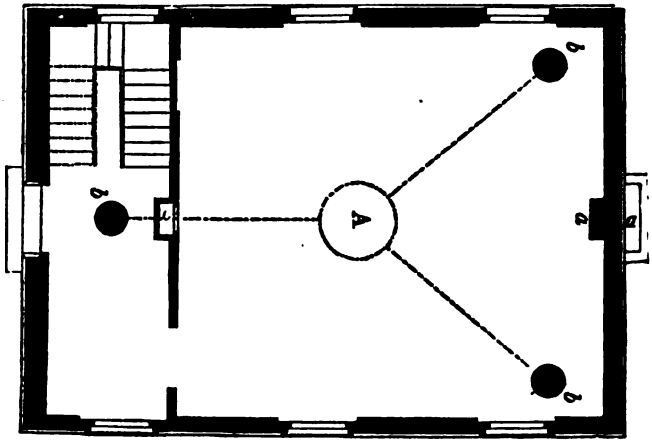
2. *Discipline.*

The discipline of the schools is made to rest upon the principle that it will be best maintained when, without special management, it finds its execution in the ordinary routine and exercises of the institution. The personal influence of the teacher in the performance of his professional duties and in his more intimate intercourse with his pupils is expected to lead them imperceptibly and almost unconsciously into right habits of feeling and action. It is the duty of the class teacher to advise and instruct the members of his class even out of school, and especially those who do not reside with their parents or in the family of a teacher. And that interference, when necessary, may be well founded and to the purpose, the Primus (head-pupil) of the class keeps a so-called "class-book" in which is entered whatever relates to the conduct of the members. These notes, as well as all admonitions and punishments inflicted, are taken into account in promotion and in the granting of certificates. Printed rules are quite frequent, but in some schools the rules are given orally every quarter or half-year to each class separately. Written excuses for absence must be rendered by the parents, but except for sickness, absence is not allowed without permission being previously asked. The usual punishments are—admonition; entry in the class-book; confinement in the school-room, with extra tasks; in some cases, corporal punishment, in the lower classes; in the upper classes, imprisonment in the school-prison; and expulsion. Severe punishment is rarely necessary, as the parents are kept informed, by half-yearly or quarterly reports, of the behavior of their sons. The system of prizes is wholly abolished.

The familiar "Thou" is used in addressing the members of the lower and middle classes; the more respectful "You" is applied to the two higher and first real class. Visiting public houses is forbidden, even to the older students, as well as smoking in the streets. Both prohibitions are a temptation to transgression, and some institutions have much difficulty in enforcing them. Members of the Prima and Secunda are permitted at some schools to visit a public garden during the summer, under certain conditions, and it has not been found that the privilege is abused. Experience shows that the desire of indulgence is stronger in

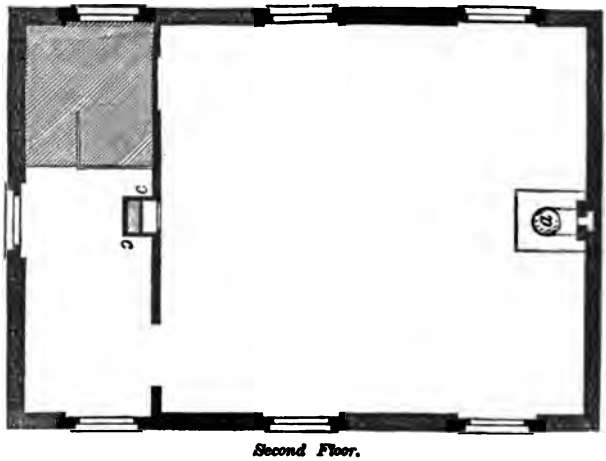
Plans of First and Second Floors.

FIGURE 4.



First Floor.

FIGURE 5.



Second Floor.

A. Furnace. a. a. a. Fresh air ducts. b. b. b. Warm air registers. c. c. c. Impure air ducts.

The modes of ventilation and heating above described and illustrated, were unanimously approved by the school committee, and recommended to the city government, for introduction into the school-houses which may be hereafter erected.

The Committee append to their Report directions for the management of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventiducts, to which they request the attention of the masters of the Public Schools, in conformity to the rule of the Board, which requires their attention to the Ventilation of the School-houses under their care.

Rules relative to the use of the Stoves, Furnaces and Ventilators.

1. *To kindle the fire.*—Close the upper, and open the lower registers of the ventiducts; close the upper door of the stove or furnace and open the lower door; place the cover of the stove one or two inches up.
2. *After the room becomes warm*—Raise the cover of the stove three or five inches; close the lower door of the stove and open the upper door; open the registers of the ventiducts about half their width.
3. *If the room become too warm*—Open the registers full width, and raise the cover of the stove high up, keeping the upper door of the stove or furnace open, and the lower door closed.
4. *If the room become too cool*—Close the upper registers, (for a short time only;) close the upper door of the stove and open the lower door; drop the cover down within two inches of the sides.
5. Never close the top of the stove entirely down, while there is any fire therein.
6. At night, on leaving the room, let the cover of the stove down within one inch of the sides; close the lower door, and open the upper one; place all the registers open about half their width.
7. Fill the water basins every morning, and wash them twice a week.

The fires should be kept, if possible, through the night, by covering the coal. The coal to be white ash.

Construction of Ventiducts.

Since the first edition of this work was published, the following note has been received from Dr. Clark, in relation to the structure of the discharging ventiducts.

BOSTON, Feb. 12th, 1849.

HENRY BARNARD, ESQ.:

My Dear Sir,—Will you allow me to ask your attention to a single matter relating to ventilation? I refer to the construction, situation, and proper materials of the ventiducts which are intended to carry off the foul air. In almost all instances within my knowledge, excepting in the buildings in this place, which have been ventilated within two or three years past, these discharging ducts are made of *brick* or stone, being often, therefore, also built in the outer wall. If there is any peculiar advantage in our school house ventilation, its success is very much owing to the manner of locating and constructing these same ejecting ventiducts.

The brick ducts always operate *downwards;* that is to say, the air has a constant *tendency to fall* in them, and they will never "draw" in the proper or *upward* direction, with the best turncap or top known, unless there is a high wind, or unless *artificial* power, such as a *fire*, or a fan wheel be put in requisition. Now the contrary is the fact with the thin *wooden, or lath-and-plaster, interior ventiduct*. The current is always in the right or *upward* direction. They are warmed to the *temperature of the room*, and when provided with a proper top will operate *in all seasons*. Although the currents will *vary* in power and rapidity, yet, while almost all our ventiducts are provided, and should be, with means of heating by lamps or otherwise, I believe they have scarcely had occasion to light them. So that any impressions formed in relation to this part of the subject from the English, and particularly the French methods of ventilating school-houses, when the brick flues are always used, must be entirely erroneous. The days in which the fires in the French flues *would be forgotten* and omitted, or *be permitted to go out*, would far exceed the number of those in which our ventiducts would not act in the most perfect manner *without any power at all.*

I would not have troubled you, but that I know this point, from much practical experience, to be worthy of especial attention, and in case you should publish a new edition of your work on school-houses, I hope it may be considered.

I am, dear sir,

Yours very truly,

HENRY G. CLARK

PREFATORY NOTE.

The official record, or Secretary's Journal of the Proceedings of the Seventh Session, of the SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING of the National Teachers' Association, held at Harrisburg, Penn., on the 16th, 17th and 18th of August, 1864, and such of the Addresses, Lectures and Papers read during the session, as were received by the Committee of Publication up to this date, are printed in pamphlet form for distribution among the members who have paid to the Treasurer the annual fee of one dollar required by the Constitution.

In 1864 the Association directed the Committee of Publication to include with the proceedings of the annual session for the year, an abstract of the proceedings of the several State Teachers' Associations for the same period. As the Committee were not able to obtain the necessary returns in time for their publication, Dr. Barnard, Editor of the American Journal of Education, in furtherance of the objects of the Association and as a contribution to the History of Education already designed for publication in his Journal, undertook not only to prepare an account of the proceedings of every State Association which held an Annual Meeting in 1864, but also a condensed summary of the subjects discussed in all the principal Conventions which had ever been held, and the Associations which had been formed for the promotion of education in the United States, and the improvement of public schools in the several States. Inviting the co-operation of the officers of all existing Associations, and using the material which he has been collecting for thirty years past for a history of Education in the United States, Dr. Barnard intended, as was announced in the Programme, to have submitted a summary of his inquiries, with some suggestions as to a Central Educational Agency, to the meeting at Harrisburg. This he was prevented from doing by illness which kept him at home, and his engagements since have prevented his writing out the brief notes of names, dates, and suggestions, prepared to aid him in an oral exposition of the subject, for publication in the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting, as he proposed to do. In his present inability to prepare such a paper, he places at the disposal of the Committee a sheet containing his Plan of a Central Office and Agency, together with a Circular as to his proposed comprehensive survey of the Educational History of the country, with the Contents of the volume devoted to the proceedings of Conventions and Associations for the Advancement of Education in the United States and the Improvement of Public Schools in the several States. The project is of such immediate and immense importance to the future progress of Schools and Education in the whole country, and the volume now ready for publication is in such direct furtherance of the expressed wishes of the Association, that the Committee have directed this sheet to be bound up with the Proceedings and forwarded to the members.

S. S. GREENE, *Providence, R. I.*
JAMES CRUIKSHANK, *Albany, New York.*
Z. RICHARDS, *Washington, D. C.*

December 27, 1865.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

A History of Associations for the Advancement of Education in the United States, and for the Improvement of Public Schools in the several States, with an Introduction on the condition of these schools as to school-houses, books, studies, and teachers, prior to the organization of these Associations, together with brief Biographical Sketches of many of their Presidents and active members, and at least 60 Portraits by eminent artists—will be published by the undersigned as early in 1866 as the Subscription List will reimburse the expense of publication.

HENRY BARNARD,
Editor of American Journal of Education.

Hartford, Conn., Dec., 1865.

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

PART I.—National Associations—with an Introduction on the Condition of Schools and Education prior to 1800. 400 Pages.

PART II.—State Conventions and Associations for Educational Purposes, with Contributions to the History of Teachers' Institutes, School Journals, &c. 464 Pages.

☞ Each PART will be published and sold separately, at $2.50, in paper cover, and without Portraits; and at $3.50, with the Portraits, in cloth binding.

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Notice will be given by Circular, mailed to each subscriber, when the volumes are published, and where copies may be obtained.

CIRCULAR.

THE undersigned, while laboring in the educational field since 1837, has been engaged in collecting the material for the Historical Development of Schools of every grade, and of Education generally in the United States, including Biographical Sketches of Eminent Teachers, and others who have been influential in framing or administering school systems, in founding, endowing, and improving institutions of learning, or in calling public attention to desirable changes in school-houses, apparatus, and text-books, and to better methods of school organization, instruction, and discipline. His plan has embraced particularly the following subjects:—

I. NATIONAL ALD STATE ASSOCIATIONS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION, IN THE UNITED STATES, with Biographical Sketches of their Founders and Presidents.

II. THE LEGISLATION OF DIFFERENT STATES IN REFERENCE TO SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION, with an Outline of the System, and the Statistics of the Schools at the time of publication.

III. SYSTEM OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS AND AGENCIES OF POPULAR INSTRUCTION IN THE PRINCIPAL CITIES of the United States, including Public Libraries, Museums, Galleries, Lectures, and Evening Classes.

IV. HISTORY OF THE PRINCIPAL UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, FEMALE SEMINARIES, AND HIGH SCHOOLS, which have permanent or reliable funds for their support, in the several States.

V. PROFESSIONAL AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS, such as Normal Schools and other Agencies for the Training of Teachers, Schools of Theolgy, Medicine, Law, Agriculture, Navigation, Engineering, Mining, War, or for exceptional classes—the Deaf, Blind, Imbecile, Orphans, Criminals, &c.

VI. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY—or the Teachers, Superintendents, Benefactors, and Promoters of Education in the United States.

VII. STATISTICS, and extracts from official documents, and other authentic information respecting schools of every grade at different periods.

VIII. EDUCATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHY—a Catalogue by Authors and Subjects, of American Publications on the Organization, Administration, Instruction, and Discipline of Schools, and on Education generally.

IX. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE, or Contributions to the Improvement of Edifices and their Equipment, designed for Educational Purposes.

X. REVIEW of the Past and Present Condition of Schools and Education in the United States, with Suggestions for their Improvement.

Much of this material, and all the compilations and *résumé*, made by the undersigned, will be published in the American Journal of Education, and so far as there may be a call for the same, in separate treatises.

The coöperation of all persons connected with or interested in any one of the above class of schools, or in any department of education, in forwarding documents, personal memoranda, history of institutions, biographical data and sketches, or suggestions of any kind, is respectfully solicited.

HENRY BARNARD, *Hartford, Conn.*

December, 1865.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

PREFACE.

The history of associations for the establishment of schools and the advancement of education in this country—or the assent of several persons to a common method of accomplishing a specific educational purpose—begins with a subscription commenced by the Chaplain of the Royal James, (Rev. M. Copeland,) on her arrival from the East Indies, in 1621, towards the erection of a *Free School*—or an Endowed Grammar School, in Charles City, Virginia. The first school in New England was probably started in the same way—that is, by a subscription by "the richer inhabitants of the town of Boston on the 22d of August, 1636," "towards the maintenance of a free schoolmaster for the youth with us." The *free schools* in Roxburie," designated by Cotton Mather as the *Schola illustris*, was established by an agreement or association of a portion of the inhabitants who joined in an act or agreement binding the subscribers and their estates to the extent of their subscription, "to erect a free schoole" "for the education of their children in Literature to fit them for the publicke service both in Churche and Commonwealthe in succeeding ages." Nearly all that class of schools now known as Grammar Schools, Academies and Seminaries, except the Town, or Public High Schools, were originally established on the principle of association. So was it with nearly every College in the country. The ten persons selected by the synod of the churches in Connecticut in 1698 from the principal ministers of the Colony to found, erect, and govern a "School of the Church," met and formed themselves into a society and agreed to found a college in the Colony; and for this purpose each of the Trustees at a subsequent meeting brought a number of books and presented them to the association, using words to this effect, as he laid them on the table: "I give these books for founding a college in Connecticut," "wherein," as afterwards declared, "youth shall be instructed in all parts of learning to qualify them for public employment in church and civil state."

Although the Common School generally was established by act of legislation—as in Connecticut and Massachusetts—to exclude

from every family that "barbarism as would allow in its midst a single child unable to read the Holy Word of God and the good laws of the Colony," those of Philadelphia and New York originated in voluntary associations of benevolent and patriotic individuals.

Nearly all professional schools for law, theology, and medicine, and every institution intended to provide for the exceptional classes —such as orphans, infants, juvenile offenders, deaf mutes, blind, imbecile children, or to introduce new methods, such as the monitorial, manual labor, and infant—originated in societies.

All of those educational enterprises, in which the religious element constitutes the leading object, such as the Sunday-School, the publication and dissemination of the Bible and religious books, have been carried on through voluntary associations.

The earliest movement for the advancement of education generally in the United States, through an association, originated in Boston in 1826, but did not take shape till some years later, although the object was partially attained through the agency of Lyceums, which were established for other purposes as well, in the same year. In the lectures and other exercises of the Lyceum, wherever established, the condition and improvement of schools—the school-house, studies, books, apparatus, methods of instruction and discipline, the professional training of teachers, and the whole field of school legislation and administration, were fully and widely discussed.

Out of the popular agitation already begun, but fostered by the Lyceum movement, originated, about the year 1830, many special school conventions and associations for the advancement of education, especially in the public schools. Most of these associations, having accomplished their purposes as a sort of scaffolding for the building up of a better public opinion, and of a better system of school legislation, have given way to new organizations founded on the same principle of the assent of many individuals to a common method of accomplishing special purposes. The history and condition of these various associations, both those which have accomplished their purpose, and those which are still in operation, having for their field the Nation or the State, will be herein briefly set forth.

To understand the condition of the schools, and of the popular estimate of education as it was about the beginning of this century, we introduce a series of articles which appeared in the Journal of Education, composed mainly of letters descriptive of the schools as they were sixty and seventy years ago, by individuals who were pupils and teachers in the same.

PROPOSALS FOR FORMING A SOCIETY OF EDUCATION IN 1826.

The following Proposals was addressed to many teachers and known friends of education for their consideration, Sept., 1826:—

THE establishment of a society for any of the numerous objects connected with human improvement, is a thing of so common occurrence, as hardly to call for apology or explanation. In the present state of the public mind with regard to the subject of education, in particular, prefatory discussion seems unnecessary. The conviction appears to be universal that the happiness of individuals and of society is dependent, to a great extent, on the information, the discipline, and the habits, which are imparted by physical, intellectual, and moral exercise, regulated by good instruction. Some of the considerations, however, which seem most strongly to urge the measure now proposed, are entitled to particular attention.

The progress of improvement in education has not hitherto been duly aided by *combined and concentrated effort*,—by mutual understanding and efficient co-operation. That this advantage is highly desirable needs not to be inculcated on any one who has attentively observed the operations or the progress of the religious and philanthropic institutions of the day. The piety and benevolence of separate individuals might have done much for the happiness of man, but could never have achieved the magnificent result of translating the Scriptures into the languages of so many nations, nor that of turning a whole people from the rites of idolatry, or the habits of barbarism. It is matter of regret that, whilst the zeal of thousands has been made to meet on so many other objects, and push them onward to brilliant success, no such union has hitherto been attempted in the great cause of education. Here and there we have had an excellent school-book, an eminent instructor, a vigilant and faithful school-committee, a distinguished institution, a memorable endowment, or a local arrangement, which has justly immortalized its projectors. But there has not been any attempt made to offer, to the country at large, the benefits likely to result from an association of men eminent and active in literature, in science, and in public life; from an extensive interchange of views on the part of instructors or from an enlightened and harmonious concurrence in a uniform set of books fitted to become the vehicles of instruction, and rendered as perfect as the united judgment of literary men and of teachers could make them. School-committees have labored industriously, indeed, but from the want of a proper channel of communication, they have not acted in concert. Endowments have, in not a few instances, been conferred with so little judgment as to become disadvantageous rather than beneficial; and town and State policy in regard to education has, though admirable in its temporary results and its restricted sphere, been so cramped in respect to time and place, as to lose much of its proper influence.

A society such as is proposed would, in all probability, do away these and similar impediments to the career of improvement, and prove a powerful engine in accelerating the intellectual progress and elevating the character of the nation.

1. As *the earliest stages of education* require, from their prospective importance as well as their natural place, the peculiar attention of parents and teachers, the proposed society would direct its attention to every thing which might seem likely to aid parents in the domestic education of their offspring, or in the establishment of schools for infants.

2. Another object of the society would be to aid *instructors* in the discharge of their duties. So much has recently been written and so well on this subject, that it seems to require but little discussion here. Let it suffice to say, that every effort would be made which might seem likely to be of service to teachers, whether by the training of youth with reference to the business of teaching, by instituting lectures on the various branches of education, by suggesting methods of teaching these branches, by using, in a word, every means of imparting a facility in communicating knowledge and in directing the youthful mind, so as to furnish instructors with the best attainable knowledge and the best possible qualifications in the branches which they might wish to teach.

A school or college for teachers, though an excellent and a practicable object, can not be put into operation in a day, nor by any single act of legislation, nor by the solitary efforts of any individual. If there is a season for every thing under the sun, there must be, in this undertaking, an incipient stage of comparative feebleness and doubt and experiment and hazard, which, however, will no doubt give place to a day of ample success, in an unparalleled amount of private and public good. The only questions are, *Where* shall this undertaking be commenced?—*when?*—and by *whom?* Should a simultaneous movement to effect this great object be made, as in all probability it will in New York, in Connecticut, and in Massachusetts, and perhaps in other States, such a society as is now

proposed might contribute valuable services to the measures which might be adopted for this purpose.

The society ought not to restrict its attention to instructors of any order, but should endeavor to embrace the services and the duties of all, from the lowest to the highest in the scale of advancement; and the mutual understanding and the universal co-operation thus secured in the business of instruction would probably be one of the greatest advantages resulting from this society.

3. An object of vast importance in the formation of a society such as is contemplated would be the collecting of a *library of useful works on education*. The members of the society would, by means of such assistance, proceed more intelligently and efficiently in the prosecution of their views; and if the library were made to comprise copies of every accessible school-book, American or European, it would furnish its readers with the means of valuable and extensive improvement in their respective branches of instruction. The advantage thus afforded would be equally serviceable to such of the society as might be employed in aiding teachers by lectures or otherwise, and to those teachers themselves.

4. A subject closely connected with the preceding would be *the improvement of school-books*. It is a thing not merely convenient or advantageous to education, and to the character of our national literature, that there should be a uniformity in school-books throughout the country; this subject possesses a political value, which reaches even to the union by which we are constituted a powerful and independent nation. Local peculiarities of sentiment and undue attachments to local custom are the results, in a great measure, of education. We do not surely lay ourselves open to the imputation of being sanguine when we venture say, that a national uniformity in plans of instruction and in school-books would furnish a bond of common sentiment and feeling stronger than any that could be produced by any other means, in the season of early life. The precise extent to which this desirable improvement might be carried would, of course, depend, in some degree, on the feelings of individuals no less than on those of any society. But every rational and proper effort would no doubt be made to render such arrangement agreeable to the views and wishes of instructors and of the authors of school-books throughout the United States.

5. In the present early stage of this business it is thought better not to multiply or extend observations, but to leave details for a more matured stage of procedure. A useful guide to *particular regulations* is accessible in Count de Lasteyrie's *Nouveau Systeme d'Education*. See that pamphlet, or the translation of part of it, given in the appendix to Dr. Griscom's Mutual Instruction. Another useful guide will be found in Jullien's *Esquisse d'un Ouvrage sur Education Compares*.

6. The vastly desirable benefit of complete and harmonious co-operation would require that several, if not all, of the large towns and cities in the United States should contain *a central committee* for managing the concerns of such a society; as *auxiliaries* to which and modeled on the same plan, professional men and teachers, as well as other persons interested in education, and capable of promoting it, might associate themselves in every town or convenient vicinity. A corresponding member from every such association, and one or more from a central committee, might, with great ease and dispatch, conduct all the business of the proposed society in any one State; and a similar arrangement on the great scale might complete the organization of the society for the United States. The whole affair offers nothing either complicated or troublesome; all that is wanted is a sufficiency of zeal and enterprise to commence and of perseverance to sustain the undertaking.

For an idea of the good likely to be accomplished by a society for the improvement of education, reference may be made to the proceedings of the *French Society of Education*, or to the present condition of the primary schools of Holland, which have attained to that condition through the efforts of a society duly impressed with the value of education, and vigorously devoting themselves to its improvement. The result of that society's labors has been nothing short of an intellectual and moral regeneration in the sphere of its action, accomplished, too, in the brief space of thirty years.

Mention might here be made also of the British and Foreign School Society which has done so much for the dissemination of improved instruction at home and abroad; and which has rendered the benefits of education as accessible to the people of England, as they have been or are to those of Scotland, of New England, or of Holland. We might mention, too, the Infant School Society as an institution which is dispensing the blessings of early instruction and moral refinement among the youngest class of British population.

The above moderate Proposals should be read in connection with the Contents and Index of the *History of Educational Associations* (*National and State*) *in the United States in* 1864. 848 pages.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS; An Account of Conventions and Societies for the Improvement of Schools and the Promotion of Education in the United States, with Biographical Sketches of their Founders and Presidents, and an Introduction on Schools and Teachers prior to 1800. Republished from Barnard's American Journal of Education. 400 pages. Price, $2.50, in paper cover, and without Portraits.

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